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ABSTRACT

The following 22 research papers are included in this proceedings: "Relationships between Scholarly Activities of Teaching and the Scholarly Activities of Research" (Ahmed Khaled Ahmed and James McElhinney); "Making the Invisible Visible: British Caribbean Immigrant Women & Their Learning Experiences in Institutions of Higher Learning" (Mary V. Alfred); "The Impact of International Trends and Issues on the Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy (JAMAL)" (Morag C. Burke); "The Ghosts in the Machine: An Evolutionary Perspective of Adult Learning" (Mary Caldarelli and Edward W. Taylor); "Factors in the Work Environment To Contribute Self-Directed Learning in the Workplace: A Critical Review of Literature" (Dae Yeon Cho); "Faculty Lived Experiences in the Online Environment" (Simone Conceicao-Runlee); "Andragogy: Its Research Value for Practice" (Mary K. Cooper and John A. Henschke); "Transforming Staff Development in Adult Literacy Education" (Christopher M. Coro); "Being a 'College Student': The Community College Experience of Underprepared Adult Learners" (John M.Dirkx, Regina Smith, and Marilyn Amey); "Enhancing the Utility of Level 1 Evaluations: Transitioning from 'Smile Sheets' to 'Significant Stuff'" (Charles Divita, Jr.); "Creating Real World Contexts in Virtual Environments: A Class of Problem-Based Learning (Christina Doktor, Regina Smith, and John M. Dirkx); "Developing and Implementing a Statewide Family Literacy Evaluation System" (Michelle Glowacki-Dudka and Gwendolyn Coe); "Walking Like a Duck, Talking Like a Duck: From Dissertation to Practical Research" (Tom Heaney); "The Study To Assess the Needs of International Adult Students" (Chung-Eun Joo); "Exploring Transfer of Training on Structured on-the-Job Training" (Jin Hyuk Kim, Chan Lee, and Ronald L. Jacobs); "The Researcher as Artist: Creating Pathways for Acquisition and Expression of Knowledge" (Randee Lipson Lawrence and Craig A. Mealman); "Post Welfare Reform Employment Retention and Advancement Strategies: The Role of Education and Training" (Larry G. Martin and Mary Alfred); "The Case for Involving Men in

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Women's Development Projects" (Margaret Y. Orazen); "An Exploration of Approaches Utilized To Interpret Race, Class, and Gender in Adult Development Models and Theory: Implications for Adult, Continuing, and Community Education" (Elice E. Rogers); "Image-Making and the Exploration Teaching Beliefs of Adult Educators" (Edward W. Taylor); "Who Is Participating in Faith-Based Programs? Why?" (Martha S. Tempesta and E. Paulette Isaac); "Going Deeper: The Role of Spirituality, Cultural Identity, and Sociopolitical Development in Teaching for Transformation" (Derise Tolliver and Elizabeth J. Tisdell); "The Ambushed Spirit: Themes of Violence and Downsizing" (Daniela Truty). The papers include references; most also include abstracts. (KC)

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Proceedings
of the
Twentieth Annual

Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference

in Adult, Continuing and Community Education

September 26-28, 2001

Edited by

William C. Hine, Ed.D.
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Charleston, Illinois

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EASTERN
ILLINOIS
UNIVERSITY

September 26, 2001

Welcome!

Oh behalf of Eastern Illinois University and the School of Adult and Continuing Education I welcome you to Charleston and the 2001 Annual Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing and Community Education. Eastern Illinois University and the School of Adult and Continuing Education are very pleased to host the 20th annual conference.

The conference committee has selected an outstanding group of presenters for this conference. In addition, we have two internationally known experts presenting at our keynote sessions, Dr. Alan Knox who will be discussing "Partners in Praxis" and Dr. Donald Hanna who will be discussing "Research for 21st Century Learning in an Era of Organizational Change".

As in past years this conference will have a pre-conference program for graduate students and a practitioner research showcase. I know that I speak for all Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing and Community Education's Steering Committee that we greatly appreciate your attendance.

Enjoy Eastern Illinois University and Charleston!

William C. Hine, Dean
School of Adult and Continuing Education
Professor of Education

Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference

in Adult, Continuing and Community Education

Mission Statement

The conference provides a forum for practitioners and researchers to discuss practices, concepts, evaluation, and research studies in order to improve practice in Adult Education. Through such discussion and collaboration participants contribute toward the realization of a more humane and just society through lifelong learning.

Prepared on behalf of the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference Steering Committee by Boyd Rossing.
May 28, 1991

Twentieth Annual

Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference

in Adult, Continuing and Community Education

September 26-28, 2001

at Eastern Illinois University

Conference Host

School of Adult and Continuing Education
Eastern Illinois University

Local Conference Planning Committee

Many people have helped to make the 2001 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing and Community Education a success. A special thanks to all of the following who served on the local conference planning committee:

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Mary Cooper
Jo Ellen Hickenbottom
Peggy Hickox
William C. Hine
James McElhinney
Henry Merrill

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2001 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference
in Adult, Continuing and Community Education

PROGRAM SCHEDULE

WEDNESDAY, SEPTEMBER 26, 2001
Eastern Illinois University MLK Student Union

12:30 – 1:30 p.m.	**On site registration** ***Alumni Lounge***
1:00 – 3:00 p.m.	**Graduate Student Pre-Conference** ***Grand Ballroom***
3:30 – 4:30 p.m.	**Round Table Discussion** ***Grand Ballroom***

THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 27, 2001
Eastern Illinois University MLK Student Union

7:45 – 8:30 a.m.	**Continental Breakfast** ***Alumni Lounge***
8:00 a.m. – Noon	**On site registration** ***Alumni Lounge***
8:30 – 8:45 a.m.	**Welcome and Announcements** ***Grand Ballroom*** **William C. Hine, Chair** **Eastern Illinois University**
8:45 – 9:45 a.m.	**Keynote Address** **"Partners in Praxis"** **Dr. Alan Knox – University of Wisconsin-Madison** ***Grand Ballroom***
10:00 – 11:00 a.m.	**Concurrent Sessions I** **Derise E. Tolliver and Elizabeth J. Tisdell** **Going Deeper: The Role of Spirituality, Cultural Identity, and Sociopolitical Development in Teaching for Transformation** ***Casey Room***

THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 26, 2001

Concurrent Sessions I -- (*continued)*

Larry G. Martin and Mary Alfred
Post Welfare Reform Employment Retention and Advancement Strategies: The Role of Education and Training
Greenup Room

Chung-Eun Joo
The Study to Assess the Needs of International Adult Students
Martinsville Room

Margaret Y. Orazen
A Transition from Women in Development (WID) to Gender and Development (GAD) – but where are the men?
Oakland Room

11:10-12:10 a.m. **Concurrent Sessions II**

Jin Hyuk Kim, Chan Lee and Ronald Jacobs
Exploring Transfer of Training on Structured On-the-Job Training
Casey Room

Michelle Glowacki-Dudka and Gwendolyn Coe
Developing and Implementing a Statewide Family Literacy Evaluation System
Greenup Room

Daniela Truty
The Ambushed Spirit: Themes of Violence and Downsizing
Martinsville Room

12:20 – 1:30 p.m. **Luncheon**
University Ballroom
Presentation of the 2001 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference Graduate Student Research Paper Award

1:40 – 2:40 p.m. **Concurrent Sessions III**

Charles Divita, Jr.
Enhancing the Utility of Level 1 Evaluations: Transitioning from "Smile Sheets" to "Significant Stuff"
Casey Room

Edward W. Taylor
Image-Making and the Exploration Teaching Beliefs of Adult Educators
Greenup Room

THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 27, 2001

Concurrent Sessions III – (*continued*)

John M. Dirkx, Regina Smith and Marilyn Amey
- Being a "College Student": The Community College Experience of Underprepared Adult Learners
- *Martinsville Room*

Morag C. Burke
- The Impact of International Trends and Issues on the Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy (JAMAL)
- *Oakland Room*

3:10 – 4:10 p.m. Concurrent Sessions IV

Christopher M. Coro
- Transforming Staff Development in Adult Literacy Education
- *Casey Room*

Elice E. Rogers
- An Exploration of Approaches Utilized to Interpret Race, Class, and Gender in Adult Development Models and Theory: Implications for Adult, Continuing and Community Education
- *Greenup Room*

Mary K. Cooper and John A. Henschke
- Andragogy – Its Research Value for Practice
- *Martinsville Room*

Tom Heaney
- Walking Like a Duck, Talking Like a Duck: From Dissertation and Practical Research
- *Oakland Room*

6:00 p.m. Dinner
Grand Ballroom

FRIDAY, SEPTEMBER 28, 2001

Eastern Illinois University MLK Student Union

7:30 – 8:30 a.m. Continental breakfast
Alumni Lounge

7:30 – 8:30 a.m. Steering Committee Meeting
1895 Room

8:00 – 11:00 a.m. On site registration
Alumni Lounge

FRIDAY, SEPTEMBER 28, 2001

8:30 – 9:30 a.m. Concurrent Sessions V

Christina Doktor, Regina Smith and John M. Dirkx
Creating Real World Contexts in Virtual Learning Environments: A Case of Problem-Based Learning
Casey Room

Simone Conceição-Runlee
Faculty Lived Experiences in the Online Environment
Greenup Room

Dae Yeon Cho
Factors in the Work Environment to Contribute Self-Directed Learning in the Workplace: A Critical Review of Literature
Martinsville Room

Randee Lipson Lawrence & Craig A. Mealman
The Researcher as Artist: Creating Pathways for Acquisition and Expression of Knowledge
Oakland Room

9:45 – 10:45 a.m. Keynote Address

"Research for 21st Century Learning in an Era of Organizational Change"
Dr. Donald E. Hanna – University of Wisconsin-Madison
Grand Ballroom

11:00 – 12:00 p.m. Concurrent Sessions VI

Mary Caldarelli and Edward W. Taylor
The Ghosts in the Machine: An Evolutionary Perspective of Adult Learning
Casey Room

Martha S. Tempesta and E. Paulette Isaac
Who is Participating in Faith-Based Programs? Why?
Greenup Room

Mary V. Alfred
Making the Invisible Visible: British Caribbean Immigrant Women and Their Learning and Developmental Experiences in Institutions of Higher Learning
Martinsville Room

Ahmed Khaled Ahmed and James McElhinney
Relationships between Scholarly Activities of Teaching and the Scholarly Activities of Research
Oakland Room

12:10 p.m. Luncheon and Closing Remarks
University Ballroom

2001 Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference
Eastern Illinois University
September 26-28, 2001

Conference At-A-Glance

	Casey Room	**Greenup Room**	**Martinsville Room**	**Oakland Room**
	Practitioner Concerns	**Reports on Research**	**Evaluation Studies**	**Methods & Issues in Research**
Thursday 10:00 – 11:00 a.m. Concurrent Sessions I	**Tolliver & Tisdell** Going Deeper: The Role of Spirituality, Cultural Identity, and Sociopolitical Development in Teaching for Transformation	**Martin & Alfred** Post Welfare Reform Employment Retention & Advancement Strategies: The Role of Education & Training	**Joo** The Study to Assess the Needs of International Adult Students	**Orazen** A Transition from Women in Development (WID) to Gender & Development (GAD) – but where are the men?
	Practitioner Concerns	**Practitioner Concerns**	**Reports on Research**	**Methods & Issues in Research**
Thursday 11:10 – 12:10 p.m. Concurrent Sessions II	**Kim, Lee & Jacobs** Exploring Transfer of Training on Structured On-the-Job Training	**Glowacki-Dudka & Coe** Developing & Implementing a Statewide Family Literacy Evaluation System	**Truty** The Ambushed Spirit: Themes of Violence and Downsizing	
	Practitioner Concerns	**Reports on Research**	**Reports on Research**	**Methods & Issues in Research**
Thursday 1:40 – 2:40 p.m. Concurrent Sessions III	**Divita** Enhancing the Utility of Level 1 Evaluations: Transitioning from "Smile Sheets" to "Significant Stuff"	**Taylor** Image-Making and the Exploration Teaching Beliefs of Adult Educators	**Dirkx, Smith, Amey** Being a "College Student": The Community College Experience of Underprepared Adult Learners	**Burke** The Impact of International Trends & Issues on the Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy (JAMAL)
	Practitioner Concerns	**Reports on Research**	**Reports on Research**	**Methods & Issues in Research**
Thursday 3:10 – 4:10 p.m. Concurrent Sessions IV	**Coro** Transforming Staff Development in Adult Literacy Education	**Rogers** An Exploration of Approaches Utilized to Interpret Race, Class and Gender in Adult Development Models & Theory	**Cooper & Henschke** Andragogy: Its Research Value for Practice	**Heaney** Walking Like a Duck, Talking Like a Duck: From Dissertation and Practical Research

	Casey Room	**Greenup Room**	**Martinsville Room**	**Oakland Room**
	Practitioner Concerns	**Reports on Research**	**Reports on Research**	**Methods & Issues in Research**
Friday **8:30 – 9:30 a.m.** **Concurrent Sessions V**	**Doktor, Smith & Dirkx** Creating Real World Contexts in Virtual Learning Environments: A Case of Problem-Based Learning	**Conceição-Runlee** Faculty Lived Experiences in the Online Environment	**Cho** Factors in the Work Environment to Contribute Self-Directed Learning in the Workplace: A Critical Review of Literature	**Lawrence & Mealman** The Researcher as Artist: Creating Pathways for Acquisition and Expression of Knowledge
	Practitioner Concerns	**Practitioner Concerns**	**Reports on Research**	**Reports on Research**
Friday **11:00 – 12:00 p.m.** **Concurrent Sessions VI**	**Caldarelli & Taylor** The Ghosts in the Machine: An Evolutionary Perspective of Adult Learning	**Tempesta & Isaac** Who is Participating in Faith-Based Programs? Why?	**Alfred** Making the Invisible Visible: British Caribbean Immigrant Women & Their Learning Experiences in Institutions of Higher Learning	**Ahmed & McElhinney** Relationships Between Scholarly Activities of Teaching and the Scholarly Activities of Research

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Relationships Between Scholarly Activities of Teaching and the Scholarly Activities of Research

Ahmed Khaled Ahmed
James H. McElhinney

Abstract

Twelve university faculty members described their scholarly activities 1) as they prepared to teach, and 2) as they completed research. Many of their scholarly activities contributed to both their development of materials for their teaching and to their development of materials for publication. Faculty members' definition of research was not limited to scholarship eventually published in refereed journals.

The scholarship in preparing for teaching often stimulated concepts that became topics for research. Often, faculty members' research focused on concepts directly related to their teaching. Faculty members teaching included products of their scholarship of research beyond the research that is published in refereed journals. Journal editors and their referees determined which faculty research was made public through journals. As teachers have always done, faculty members determined which of their research was made public through their teaching.

Research Question

To what extent do the activities used to produce content for teaching and the activities used in producing research enhance or conflict with each other?

Methodology

During interviews, lasting from one to two hours each, twelve faculty members, with reputations as quality teachers, described in detail their actions as they developed materials to teach. Faculty members' detailed descriptions were assumed to be dependable evidence of the actions used to produce quality teaching.

The twelve faculty members also described in detail the actions they took to produce materials for publication. Faculty members' detailed descriptions were assumed to be dependable evidence of the actions used to produce materials for publication.

Faculty interviews were transcribed and each faculty member was given a copy of his or her transcription. During a shorter second interview, each faculty member checked, approved, enriched, or modified earlier statements. The Ethnographic Interview by Spradley (1979) provided the model for developing the interview questions and for analyzing faculty members' responses.

Limitations

Evidence was collected from 12 faculty members from one college in one mid-western university who agreed to participate. The reader must judge the extent to which the findings can be generalized.

Related Research

In 1990 Boyer advocated four forms of scholarship: 1) the scholarship of discovery (research), 2) the scholarship of integration, 3) the scholarship of application, and 4) the scholarship of teaching. Two of Boyer's forms of scholarship: 1) the scholarship of discovery (research), and 4) the scholarship of teaching were the foci of this research.

Braxton (1996) reported that three perspectives described the relationship between quality teaching and published research: null, conflicting, and complementary. The null perspective concluded that no consistent relationship exists between conducting quality teaching and producing publishable research. The conflicting relationship concluded that there is, sometimes, a negative relationship between teaching and research. One example of conflicting relationship is teaching and research competes for the faculty member's time. The complementary relationship refers to the extent to which the understandings reached while completing the roles of teaching and research are positively related (Faia, 1976).

In 1990 Hattie & Marsh analyzed 58 existing research studies that focused on the relationships between teaching and publishing research.
In their analysis of 58 reports of research, Hattie & Marsh reached the *general* conclusion that there was no relationship between teaching well and publishing research. Their evidence could be grouped so their major conclusion could be divided into three conflicting sub-conclusions: 1) there was a positive relationship between scholarly activities needed to teach well and to publish research, 2) there was no relationship between scholarly activities needed to teach well and to publish research, and 3) there was a negative relationship between scholarly activities needed to teach well and publish research. These three sub-conclusions are in agreement with Braxton's findings.

All 58 studies in Hattie and Marsh's research accepted student evaluations of teaching as evidence for quality in teaching. All 58 studies used publication as evidence of quality in research. Acceptance for publication was based on the recommendations of two or three professional reviewers (peers) selected by journal editors. Our research was motivated, partially, because we questioned the adequacy of student evaluations as indicators of quality in teaching. Also, we questioned whether faculty members accepted publication as the sole criterion for research.

Our research used the professional activities reported by twelve university faculty members as they identified the activities they judged produced quality in teaching and the extensive activities they considered to be research.

Faculty members provided a list of professional actions they pursued continuously to maintain and strengthen their teaching. The actions used to produce quality teaching were similar to the actions faculty members used when they described the actions used to produce research. The actions these faculty members reported using to produce quality teaching included interacting with and responding to students. The university employing these teachers used student evaluations in determining their progress toward tenure and in assigning merit pay. Yet no faculty member mentioned student evaluations during the interviews. When the purpose of evaluation of teaching is accountability it is our judgment that students should be one source of evidence. These faculty members were reporting their scholarship as teachers.

Findings

The definition for scholarship used by faculty members in this study included all quests for knowledge whether the knowledge was to be used for producing content for teaching or for publication.

Faculty members defined the scholarship of teaching as including systematically gathering dependable evidence from professional journals articles and research-based books, focused participation in professional conferences, mastering current technology appropriate to teaching, serious conversations with colleagues, systematic analysis of their own teaching, and observation of the teaching of peers. Often the results of the scholarship of teaching influence faculty members' teaching in the near future, or later. Several respondents used journal articles, research-based books, and other current literature directly as teaching material.

Faculty members' definition of the scholarship of research included and went beyond the systematic gathering and analysis of evidence from individuals and groups. Their definition included studying the latest printed research and theory in their content areas, systematic participation in conferences and workshops, and involvement with colleagues in focused discussions of important professional issues. For these faculty members the results of the scholarship of research might, or might not, result in publications in refereed journal's, in presentations in conferences, or in publications not refereed. Obviously faculty members definitions of the scholarship of teaching and of research do overlap.

Scholarship, for these faculty members, seemed to include almost all of the professional activities that kept them current or that extended their professional competencies. The results of their scholarship were expressed as improved teaching and as professional publications. Beyond teaching, faculty members presented the results of their scholarship in conferences, workshops, and seminars. Some of their teaching ideas were developed into articles published in refereed journals and conference proceedings. Faculty members continuously shared their teaching ideas with their colleagues. They were involved in many learning activities in their university that influenced their teaching. Faculty members for example, learned how to conduct classroom discussions, how to use technology in the classroom (Web Page, Power Point, and overhead projectors), and how to interact with their students. These activities helped faculty members produce quality teaching.

Discussion

Kingman (1993) proclaimed "it is the duty of every teacher to engage in a form of research which benefits teaching" (p. 15). In this study, faculty members judged that the relationship between the scholarship of teaching and the scholarship of research was a strong one. They reported that their research activities and their teaching activities were intricately related. Faculty members described ways research positively impacted their teaching and how their teaching ideas became research topics. Research informed their teaching and teaching generated new research ideas. The study of others' research improved teaching by offering the latest information in their fields, and the most current teaching strategies and techniques provided by research on teaching.

One criterion often applied to research is that research is a public activity. This criterion, potentially, calls attention to an ethical challenge faced by all teachers. Does the use of their unpublished research in their teaching constitute using students, unknowingly, to become referees of research?

Publication in refereed journals was just one of the uses faculty members listed as they described the use of their research activities. Refereed research is a system in which research efforts are judged by two or three anonymous peers selected by the editors of a limited number of journals. This system may make errors in identifying which research is made public. When accepted, published research can be reviewed by other professionals, can contribute to the development of a field of study, and can add to the systematically discovered knowledge disseminated through print and available to any reader. The two major references cited in this report, Braxton and Hattie & Marsh, refer to numerous pieces of research with contradictory findings that passed the referee process. Obviously, quality research can lead to different conclusions.

Now, direct publication on the Internet bypasses the journal editors and the anonymous reviewers. With Internet publication each reader of material becomes her or his own reviewer.

Often, teaching is assumed to be a public activity. The findings of original, unpublished research used by faculty members as content of their teaching reaches students as an audience. Students range of competence to evaluate faculty research may be similar to their competence to evaluate faculty teaching.

The faculty members' definition of research activities fits Boyer's scholarship of application if teaching is a form of application.

Both student evaluations of teaching and publishing research are criteria for survival of faculty members in adult, continuing, and extension education.

In this study, faculty members reported that research and teaching were intertwined activities that produced two different products. Research and teaching were strongly related and each function helped improve the other. Faculty members reported that some of the activities in both teaching and research were similar and overlapping. They reported high commitment to both activities. They found ways to make progress in both activities at the same time. Even though teaching seemed to be a dominant emphasis of the faculty, ten faculty members of twelve reported being research level graduate faculty. The activities used to produce quality teaching were influenced by the demands of producing publishable research and vice versa.

Conclusion

According to Marsh and Hattie (1996), the expected positive relationship between teaching and research is often based on the promise that "the abilities underlying successful teaching and the abilities underlying successful research are similar. The values associated with both good teaching and good research are claimed to be high commitment (perseverance, dedication, hard work), creativity (imagination, originality, inventiveness), investigativeness, and critical analysis" (p. 512).

In this study, the relationship between the two functions became natural, not forced. For faculty members, many of their activities as scholars were both research and teaching. While teaching was identified as the highest form of scholarship, research was also a valid form of scholarship.

Evidence from faculty members interviewed implies that the time has come to move beyond the debate between "teaching versus research" to a more inclusive term "scholarship" (Boyer, p. 16). Scholarship included discovery of new knowledge, looking for connections, and building bridges between theory and practice. Teaching was scholarship applied.

Evidence from faculty members supported Boyer's definition of teaching as a form of scholarship (1990, p. 23). The literature we reviewed identified research as refereed publications. Teaching was not identified a form of scholarship except in Boyer's report. Still many studies we examined considered only research to be a form of scholarship. Our findings disagreed with this view.

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MAKING THE INVISIBLE VISIBLE: BRITISH CARIBBEAN IMMIGRANT WOMEN AND THEIR LEARNING EXPERIENCES IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING

Mary V. Alfred

Abstract: This study examined the learning and development experiences of British Caribbean immigrants in the United States. The findings indicate that culture and early school socialization in our country of origin influenced our learning and development experiences in the host culture. Some of the major challenges were in transforming our cultural assumptions about silence, negotiating language and identity, and reorienting to a new meaning of teaching and learning.

America has always been recognized as a nation of immigrants. The majority of today's immigrants, however, do not come from Europe, but from the developing nations of the third world to include Asia, Latin America, and the Caribbean (Portes & Rumbaut, 1996). This dramatic shift in the composition of today's population speaks of an urgency to meet the needs of the ever-increasing number of newly arrived minorities in the United States. Therefore, institutions of higher education have an important role to play in providing effective education for immigrant people of color (Rendon & Hope, 1996), particularly in our quest to make the transition from our culture of origin into the American culture. While post-secondary educators have always been involved in immigrant education, primarily through ESL, literacy, and citizenship classes, they have done little theorizing about the learning and development experiences of the growing population of immigrant people of color whose learning they facilitate (Cassara, 1991).

Theoretical Framework and Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate, analyze, and describe how British Caribbean immigrant women in the United States construct knowledge from their transcultural experiences and how they use such knowledge in their learning and development in the host country. The two theoretical constructs that informed this study are (1) The social construction of Caribbean immigration (Kasinitz, 1992; LaPorte & Montimer, 1983) and (2) constructivist epistemology (Fosnot, 1996; von Glassersfeld, 1996; Vygotsky, 1978).

Since the abolition of slavery on West Indian sugar plantations, West Indians have viewed migration as a way of sustaining their livelihood. After the emancipation of slavery on the islands in 1838, intra-island migration began, as inhabitants migrated within the islands seeking employment as a means to a better life. Consequently, since the United States opened its doors to the third world countries in the early nineteenth century, British West Indians have viewed it as a country where opportunities are abound and where dreams of economic stability can be realized. The primary reason for Caribbean migration is, "the gap between life aspirations and expectations and the means to fulfill them in the country of origin" (Portes & Rumbaut, 1992, p. 12). The substantial economic differential between the U.S. and the Caribbean has operated as a strong pull factor, while the limited expansion of economic opportunities for professional development in the Caribbean has operated as a push factor (Palmer, 1983). The concepts of the pull and push factor can be used to understand the primary reasons for West Indian immigration into the United States and the drive with which they seek and take advantage of educational opportunities in their host culture. While Caribbean immigrant women have consistently participated in education, their experiences remain absent from the social science literature (Marshall, 1994). The theory of constructivism was used in this study to frame the women's learning experiences and to understand how they learn and construct knowledge in the host country.

Constructivist epistemology is a theory of knowledge acquisition that focuses on how people learn and the nature of the knowledge (Fosnot, 1996). Constructivism, therefore, is a theory about learning and integrates the cognitive, contextual, and cultural dimensions of the learning process. This theory suggests that learners, individually and socially, construct knowledge for themselves and such meaning constructions are the foundation for knowledge. Learning, therefore, is a multidimensional approach that encompasses cognition, culture, and community (vonGlaserfeld, 1996.

Research Design and Data Analysis

This qualitative study used a heuristic phenomenological approach (Moustakas, 1994) to explore how immigrant women construct and acquire knowledge in the host country and how their early lived experiences influenced learning and development in adulthood. According to Moustakas (1994), heuristic inquiry is a process that begins with a problem or a question for which the researcher seeks understanding or illumination. To fully understand the phenomenon under exploration, the researcher invites other participants with similar experiences to share in the research journey. The study used a sample of 12 participants from the British Caribbean islands, who now reside in the Midwestern, the Southwestern, and the Eastern United States. I, as the primary researcher, was also one of the participants.

The biographical interviews were autiotaped, transcribed verbatim, and the data analyzed in three ways. First, I constructed a case narrative or biography, describing each of our experiences. Second, I identified each significant experience within each of our stories and situated it within the sociocultural context of family, community, institution (school, workplace) and the wider society. The experiences within each of these contexts were further situated within the country of origin or the receiving country. Next, I continued with a thematic analysis of each transcript, and finally did a cross case analysis to uncover the common themes in our learning and developmental experiences.

Findings

The history of immigrant women's learning and development is the history of interactions between the self and the various sociocultural contexts within which she interacts. The sociocultural systems of interactions include the family, both in the Caribbean and in the United States, the African American community, the White institutional structures (the school and the workplace), and the larger society. Our interaction with these sociocultural systems shape our learning and developmental as immigrant women.

Learning and Development in Our Home Country

The findings from the study suggest that the early learning and developmental activities in the Caribbean prepared us for two significant life roles that would form a foundation for our successful participation in America's workplace and learning institutions. We learned how to struggle through hard work,and we learned how to learn. These early foundational elements were found to shape our experiences in adulthood.

Learning how to struggle through hard work. Much of the learning activities during our early developmental era were facilitated my members of our family lifeworld. The Caribbean family includes parents, grandparents, siblings, children of siblings, aunts, uncles, as well as other community members, who contribute to our knowledge base as developing individuals. The learning that took place among this network of kinfolks was informal, collaborative, innovative, and self-directed, and it was motivated by the economic difficulties and life's struggles that were prevalent at the time. These learning strategies were passed on to us through stories, modeling, and through direct instructions. Our informal learning took place within communities, where the contexts of race, class, language, ethnicity, and location did not form barriers to our learning.

Learning how to learn. All of us in the study completed secondary education in our country of origin. This is very significant when one considers the limited opportunities available for secondary education during our early developmental experiences. During that era, secondary education was a competitive process, and it was reserved for the top academic achievers on the islands. Rita explained the selection process for secondary education and its influence on formal learning..

> Because we were British colonies, we had a system of education that was handed down to us from British colonialism. Our school structure was decided by the mother country, our curricula was selected by its members, they wrote and graded our entrance level exams for secondary schools and our exit exams after high school. While in elementary school, you have three attempts to pass the exam that would qualify you to enter high school. If you do not pass the exam by the age of 13, you missed the opportunity to get a high school education. Therefore, only the best and the brightest earned the opportunity to attend high school.

Because of the significance and competitive nature of secondary schooling, the elementary school structure was very rigidly organized to maximize an objective pedagogy. The rigid school structure, the emphasis on mastering content information, and our rigorous study habits in response to the academic demands contributed to our ability to excel in American educational systems. As Yvonne noted, "Because of the emphasis placed on our early education, we learned how to study; we learned how to learn. . . . Learning here in America came easily for me."

Learning and Development Within the Host Culture

Immigrating to America was motivated partly by a desire for opportunities that were not available in our country. Upon arriving, we were initially met with culture shock, ridicule, aloneness, and a lost sense of self. All of us had graduated high school with several ordinary and advanced level certifications and held professional jobs in our country. However, upon entry into the United States, we had to learn to transform ourselves into marginal and invisible entities. We were often ridiculed because of our unfamiliarity with the cultural norms and practices. Most humiliating of all was the ridicule that resulted from our Caribbean accents. As a result of such ridicule, some of us initially avoided social contacts and remained isolated from the American public. Later, most of us made a conscious effort to change the way of speaking in order to soften the harshness of the Caribbean accents. Members reported speaking in softer tones and slower notes so that they could be clearly understood. Learning the proper use of voice (as dictated by members of the host society) has been a constant challenge to West Indian immigrants who pride themselves in their ethnic identity, yet feel compelled to negotiate language in order to sound credible.

Silent knowers in American educational systems. Speaking in class and speaking the mind was one of the greatest challenges that we faced in the American classroom. Our early school experiences did not readily promote classroom dialog, and the ridicule we encountered as a result of our Caribbean accent made it particularly difficult for us to find our voice to articulate our thoughts and ideas. In the Caribbean secondary school classroom, ideas were expressed on paper, through essays, creative writing, and analyses of texts. Consequently, using the voice to articulate constructed knowledge was an initial challenge for us. We became silent knowers in an academic culture, where silence leads to invisibility and marginalization

Moving from a position of voice, visibility, and power in our home country to one of invisibility, silence, and powerlessness in our new country definitely impacted our sense of identity and self-definition. Interestingly, however, we saw our identity shifting with the location within which we found ourselves. When within our Caribbean community in the US and in other informal settings, we experienced a more positive sense of self and found our voice to articulate our thoughts. In formal locations dominated by members of the majority culture, however, we experienced a shift in identity as we moved from voice to silence. We noted, however, that as we moved within the culture and were accepted by cultural members, over time, this outsider-within feeling slowly minimized. In other words, the longer we remain with a cultural group and the longer we interact with that group, our perception of being marginalized diminishes. The contexts of time and location influenced our learning and development experiences within the receiving country.

Gaining voice, speaking out The development of voice from a place of silence was facilitated by a strong desire to find one's way. We came with a strong ambition to succeed and were determined to work hard to accomplish our goals. We also came with the knowledge that goal attainment was possible, primarily through education. However, we found an educational system that rewarded voice and visibility and marginalized silence and invisibility. Since we came with a vision of a productive and comfortable life in America, we had to transform ourselves from a position of silence and invisibility to one of voice and visibility. Our experience from silence to voice is what Mezirow (1991) would call a "disorienting dilemma" that resulted in a "perspective transformation." Since the power of voice was important to our professional development, we could not reject our dilemma with silence and had to learn to incorporate new meaning into our meaning structures. This change in meaning structures lead to our perspective transformation. According to Mezirow (1991), perspective transformation is the process of becoming critically aware of how and why our presuppositions have come to constrain the way we perceive, understand, and feel about the world. By becoming critically aware of the impact of silence on our development, we had to consciously reframe our early cultural assumptions and integrate new assumptions relative to our new cultural location.

Teaching and learning in the US. During our participation with American educational systems, we were both thrilled and challenged at the way learning was facilitated in the classroom. While we embraced the notion of learning in collaboration, the co-creation of knowledge, and our own abilities at knowledge construction, we also struggled with our need for a more emphasis on object knowledge. There was always that contradiction to hold on to our old way of knowing while, at the same time, valuing other forms of knowledge construction and acquisition. Shoala, who is an elementary reading specialist shared her enthusiasm and her frustration:

> In the Caribbean, the classroom was more teacher centered. The teacher was the one who was the keeper of the knowledge and she imparts it on you. I like the fact that here it is multifaceted. I can have cooperative learning, I like the touch; I like the hands-on approach. My philosophy for learning is hands-on, minds-on approach. It's not just you telling me. With some things you pick up more by doing. In the Caribbean, we learned by rote and it was stuffed down your throat, and you had to know it. Here it is more relaxed, and there is not just one approach to learning. . . . I must admit that in graduate school. I missed the more structured way of learning. I missed having the professors share their expert knowledge of the subject matter; too much of the learning was left to the students. I guess if I did not have the disciplined structure that I had in the Caribbean, I don't know if I could have survived the relaxed structure of graduate education.

While Shoala sees the value of constructivist learning, primarily in early education, she seems to hold on to her early experience with learning which was measured primarily through content mastery. The need for a more teacher-directed classroom was voiced by most of us. We enjoy the experience of a more flexible learning/teaching structure than what we had, but we would prefer to have a more teacher-directed learning environment. However, we concluded that we are in a privileged position, in that, our Caribbean experience provided us with the discipline needed to successfully perform academically, while our American experience continues to expose us to a whole new world of learning and exploration, from which we can select our best strategies.

Summary and Implications

The findings indicate that culture and early school socialization in the country of origin influenced learning and development in the US. These early learning experiences created a disciplined structure and a solid foundation that facilitated adult learning in the host culture. The context of time and location was also found to have an influence on learning and identity development. Among their Caribbean communities and in informal networks, participants experienced a positive sense of self and were not hindered by silence. However, when in formal environments dominated by Whites, they became invisible and often return to silence. As members of the dominant culture become more accepting of the immigrants and begin to interact with them, this outsider-within feeling diminishes. The findings also suggest that many of the women made a conscious effort to renegotiate their identity by reconstructing their language patterns. They changed their enunciation patterns and practiced speaking in slower notes and softer tones "to soften the harsh Caribbean accent," as such ways of speaking identify them as outsiders, and uneducated, lower-class citizens. Softening the harshness of Caribbean identity to a more acceptable blend of American identity was found to be important to socialization and acculturation within the host culture. An important finding is the struggle with collaborative learning and knowledge construction in adulthood. While participants see the value in creating knowledge within a structured learning community, it is not their preferred way of learning. They yearn for a more teacher-directed classroom where objective thought and knowledge is still paramount.

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THE IMPACT OF INTERNATIONAL TRENDS AND ISSUES ON THE JAMAICAN MOVEMENT FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF LITERACY

Morag C. Burke

Abstract

Like many post-colonial developing countries, Jamaica implemented a popular nation-wide education campaign shortly after independence to improve adult literacy (Freire, 1970; JAMAL, 1999). In 1974 an organization called the Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy (JAMAL) was formed with a mandate to increase adult literacy rates from the 1974 level of approximately 50% (JAMAL, 1999). National conditions as well as international trends and issues guide the activities and direction of literacy organizations (Arnove, Torres, Franz, & Morse, 1997). This paper examines the extent to which JAMAL reflects and has responded to these international influences and the ways in which the particular Jamaican context diverges from broader trends. The complexity of delivering effective adult literacy education in developing countries requires a close examination of the specific context rather than a reliance on the knowledge of broader trends alone. The case of Jamaica and JAMAL exemplifies this point and by implication indicates the need to examine adult education practice in the United States within the context of a broader international perspective.

Introduction

In many ways Jamaica exemplifies the experience of developing countries after independence and the subsequent development of adult literacy programs. Jamaica implemented a popular nation-wide education campaign in 1974 called the Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy - JAMAL (Freire, 1970; JAMAL, 1999). JAMAL was established in response to the identified need to provide literacy training to the many Jamaican adults who were without sufficient literacy skills (JAMAL, 1999). Adult literacy campaigns in developing countries are influenced by national conditions. Although Jamaica gained independence in 1964, the residue of colonization can be seen in the economy, educational structure, politics, language, and culture of the country. All these factors have implications for the low literacy rates that Jamaica has addressed through JAMAL. Literacy organizations are also greatly influenced by international trends and issues in the field, particularly since many of these campaigns are funded to some degree by external organizations and donor countries (Arnove et al., 1997). The examination of JAMAL provides insight into the ways an individual adult literacy organization operating in a developing country has responded to, learned from and incorporated into their practice major international trends and issues in the field. It also demonstrates that the complexities in particular situations must be examined in which closely before effective adult literacy programming and delivery can be developed.

International Trends and Issues

Many developing countries experienced a period of optimism in 1960s through 1970s when they gained their independence and numerous national literacy campaigns were launched (Freire, 1969; Limage, 1993). During this period the trend was to emphasize literacy for social justice and self-actualization, as well as for democratization, economic growth and improved national health (Arnove, et al., 1997; Freire, 1969; Wagner, 1990). JAMAL was established in 1974 during this period of optimism to address the issue of adult illiteracy (JAMAL, 1999). The need for adult literacy education reflected the inadequacies of the formal education structure, which lacked cohesion, universal access, relevance and an appropriate structure to meet the needs of the Jamaican population (Goulbourne, 1988; Jules, 1998). It was estimated in 1970 that between 40% and 50% of all Jamaicans over the age of fifteen were illiterate (JAMAL, 1999; Miller, Thompson, Greer, & Reynolds, 1979). In accordance with the trends of that period, JAMAL launched a vigorous mass literacy campaign (JAMAL, 1999). The original mission statement for the organization was "Eradicating illiteracy in the shortest time possible" (JAMAL, 1999; Miller, et al, 1979). JAMAL sought funding from both national and international agencies, but most of its initial operating costs were provided by the Jamaican government (JAMAL, 1999).

The global economic recession in the 1980s and early 1990s was particularly hard on developing countries and negatively impacted funding to education, including adult literacy programs (Arnove et al., 1997; Woolman, 1997). In many countries the international debt crisis inhibited the achievement of the education goals set in the 1960s and 1970s (Arnove et al., 1997; Woolman, 1997). Governments severely cut back or removed social safety net expenditures including education while much of the Gross National Product was spent on servicing huge national debts (Arnove et al., 1997; Woolman, 1997).

In parallel with the international economic downturn, Jamaica experienced a recession that began in the mid-1970s and continued through to the early 1990s from which the country has still not fully recovered (Lundy, 1999). Unsuccessful attempts to nationalize private industry and over-spending in the 1970s put the country in financial crisis (Lundy, 1999). Due to this economic instability the Jamaican government has made substantial cuts to all areas of educational funding since independence, including JAMAL (JAMAL, 1999). In the 1970s, the socialist government had difficulty procuring international loans due to its ties with Cuba while the rapid increase in interest rates in the 1980s further increased the Jamaican national debt (Lundy, 1999). With a change in government in 1980, Jamaica was able to secure major loans from international financial institutions such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank and begin to address the debt crisis (Lundy, 1999).

Like many other developing countries during that period, Jamaica was subject to "structural adjustment" policies imposed by the international lending agencies such as the IMF and the World Bank (Arnove, et al, 1997; Lundy, 1999). The influence that external agencies exerted in steering the course of development has been a salient issue for recipient countries and has impacted the scope and direction of adult literacy programs (Hickling-Hudson, 1999; Fiske, 1997; Jones, 1990; Woolman, 1997). Jamaica was required to devalue its currency, privatize government enterprises, impose wage control, increase taxes and maintain an emphasis on export growth and import liberalization (Lundy, 1999). Such measures were imposed on many developing countries with severe social costs including significant reductions in spending on education (Arnove, et al, 1997; Lundy, 1999). Despite Jamaica's commitment to education, the budget for primary education was reduced by 30% in the ten years from 1977 to 1987 (Lalta & Freckleton, 1993). Adult education also suffered as JAMAL's budget was reduced by 48% between 1986 and 1994 (JAMAL, 1999). In the face of these imposed hardships, Jamaica has shown its continued commitment to adult education through its ongoing promotion of JAMAL and financial assistance, although reduced, of the organization while other countries have ceased an active promotion of adult literacy programs (Arnove, et al, 1997; Jules, 1998).

In an effort to revive economies, the international trend in adult literacy programs shifted toward emphasizing job skills (Hickling-Hudson, 1999; Jones, 1990). The majority of programs which emphasized literacy to produce better workers failed because of lack of participant interest (Limage, 1993). Successful programs proceed from the needs of individuals and communities rather than government dictates (Limage, 1993). However, developing countries face the challenge of overcoming the disparity between the rising demand for skilled labor and the presence in the workforce of large numbers of people with low literacy (Literacy Survey, 2000).

As international trends changed the focus of adult literacy education so did JAMAL. Since 1982 JAMAL has emphasized integrating literacy and basic job skills training for 15-25 year-olds and often works in conjunction with established vocational programs (Linder, 1990). However, JAMAL has continued to emphasize personal growth and societal participation, which were valued so highly in the optimistic post-colonial period (Arnove, et al., 1997; Freire, 1969; Wagner, 1990). JAMAL has responded to the evolution of international trends while maintaining some of the core values that sparked the literacy movement in Jamaica. This responsiveness combined with an adherence to the values of the community have made JAMAL one of the most successful adult literacy movements in the Caribbean (Jules, 1998; Linder, 1990).

One of the challenges of adult literacy programs in developing countries has been the basic issue of how to describe levels of literacy in order to assess progress in achieving increased literacy rates (Hickling-Hudson, 1999; Limage, 1993; Wagner, 1990). Measuring levels of literacy requires that the term "literate" be defined (Hickling-Hudson, 1999; Limage, 1993; Wagner, 1990). The complexity of this task has led to a more recent trend toward recognizing a spectrum of literacy skills rather than relying on the conventional "literate" versus "illiterate" dichotomy (Hickling-Hudson, 1999; Limage, 1993; Wagner, 1990). Individual countries and organizations have established specific measures of literacy but these do not necessarily transfer to other contexts (Arnove & Graff, 1992; Limage, 1993). When JAMAL was started, literacy measures for the country were simply divided into "illiterate" and "literate" as was consistent with the international practice at the time (JAMAL, 1999). More recently, the organization has followed the worldwide trend toward a more comprehensive view of literacy. JAMAL now measures literacy according to four categories: illiterate; basic literacy; literacy; and, functional literacy (JAMAL, 1999). This graduated assessment of literacy skills allows a more accurate picture of the state of literacy in Jamaica and therefore an ability to more effectively plan the organization's activities.

The political, linguistic and cultural aspects of assessment further contribute to the difficulty of defining literacy (Wagner, 1990). In many countries there is a political interest in portraying higher literacy levels than exist (Wagner, 1990). This situation is further complicated by an assessment of literacy skills that may be measured in the country's official language(s), so those who are only literate in an unofficial language are counted as non-literate (Wagner, 1990). The question of whether to use the colonial language as the medium of measurement can also be a sensitive matter (Wagner, 1990). Standard British English, the colonial language in Jamaica, has been the language of education yet Creole is spoken by the majority and is traditionally been the speech of the poor (Pollard, 1994). This dichotomy creates a barrier to education in general, however, Creole is primarily an oral language so there is little question of measuring literacy in this language (Pollard, 1994). Nevertheless, some of the more complex issues around language and literacy that are pertinent in countries with many indigenous languages do not apply to Jamaica.

An overall improvement in literacy has been achieved in many countries, however significant underlying disparities in literacy rates exist between young and old, urban and rural, and male and female populations (Careles, 1990; Fiske, 1997, Wagner, 1990; Woolman, 1997). These patterns of disparity in literacy rates reflect inequities in access to education and to resources in general that have implications for educational attainment. As broad categories, populations that are older, rural or female have lower literacy rates than their counterparts (Careles, 1990; Fiske, 1997; Wagner, 1990; Woolman, 1997). In some ways, literacy in Jamaica reflects these international trends. Literacy is highest among the 50% of the population that is urban and among young adults (JAMAL, 1999; Lundy, 1999). Adults aged 15-34 have a literacy rate of 84% while those over 65 have a literacy rate of 48% (JAMAL, 1999). However, contrary to international trends in gender differences, in Jamaica women are more literate than men (JAMAL, 1999). This begins with gender differences in childhood socialization and continues into adulthood (Evans & Davies, 1994). According to 1994 figures, the adult literacy rate for females is 81% and 69% for males (JAMAL, 1999).

Conclusion

JAMAL continues to serve the literacy needs of its population and to explore the appropriate direction to proceed in the future. As we have seen, this organization has been influenced by and responded to international trends and issues in the field of adult literacy. It is possible to deepen our understanding of the impact and meaning of these trends for national literacy organizations operating in developing countries by examining the specific context that JAMAL operates within. The JAMAL example demonstrates that some broad trends such as periods of international optimism as well as economic downturn, the influence that donor agencies exert, and evolving definitions of literacy, as well as disparities in literacy achievements in differing sectors of society apply to the individual case of Jamaica. JAMAL and the Jamaican´context demonstrates that each case will have areas that differ from broad international trends. In Jamaica, JAMAL did not have to cope with complex political and language issues that inhibit delivery of literacy services in many other developing countries. Perhaps most surprisingly, the international trend of male versus female literacy rates is reversed in Jamaica.

Caution must be exercised in making assumptions based on broad trends that may not be salient in specific situations. This discussion of the international trends and issues in literacy education indicates the importance of research in advancing this field and providing guidance for the functioning of adult literacy organizations. The interaction of the global and the local combine to create a unique circumstance in each context. Furthermore, examining programs internationally provides a lens through which adult educators in the United States can view national and local literacy issues. Finally, such reflection gives fresh insight and a different perspective which informs our practice.

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THE GHOSTS IN THE MACHINE: AN EVOLUTIONARY PERSPECTIVE OF ADULT LEARNING

Mary Caldarelli & Edward W. Taylor

Abstract

This paper introduces evolutionary psychology to the field of adult education, bringing to light the role natural selection plays in conjunction with experience in understanding adult learning. In addition, it discusses possible implications it has for the teaching adults.

Introduction

The cognitive revolution of the 50's that propagated the metaphor of the computer-like-brain is being discarded for a new focus. Over the last decade there has been significant interest in "meaning making" found in the study of situated cognition, constructivism, and transformative learning (Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). Despite this focus, discerning meaning is not as simple as some psychologists believe, instead, it involves a host of processes most of which operate on an unconscious level (Gazzaniga, 1998). This perspective on learning leaves many questions unanswered, such as what is occurring internally when adults are making meaning? Why do humans seem predisposed to learn in certain ways and not in others? Is learning an innate ability of humans? With the present learning theories we are left with the feeling that the "ghosts in the machine" are running the show.

Traditionally research on learning and behavior have focused on proximal causation, which is rooted in life experience, ontogeny, and context (Crawford 1998) or with brain-based learning concerning the direct relationship between the physiology of the brain and behavior (Bjorklund 1997). However, these approaches ignore the influence of underlying, more universal causal mechanisms, which are a result of evolution. Causal explanations for behavior resulting from the inherent forces of natural selection have shaped human cognition across the millennium and may provide new clues to how adults learn. This approach involves asking: "What is the nature of the brain's innate learning circuitry and how has evolution shaped that machinery?" (Blakeslee, 1997, p. B12). The answer to this question and others can be found in the new discipline of evolutionary psychology, a melding of evolutionary biology with modern psychology. This discipline makes sense of the complex role that evolution plays in conjunction with experience in determining and shaping behavior, such that organisms, inclusive of humans, are predisposed to learn certain things in certain ways. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to discuss adult learning from an evolutionary perspective.

Evolutionary Psychology

Evolution is the change in the genetic makeup of organisms over time that results in a succession of design modifications. Darwin identified natural selection as the mechanism that drives evolution while the raw material is the heritable variation that exists between individuals of a species. Some of these variations confer a reproductive and survival advantage (e.g., fitness) to individuals that possess them by addressing problems faced in the environment. Differential reproductive success spreads a new design feature that solve adaptive problems more rapidly through a population than a feature that does not. The end result is adaptations, evolved solutions to specific problems that contribute to reproductive success (Buss, 1999). Acknowledging that humans are products of millions of years of natural selection and accumulated adaptations and posses a highly evolved brain structure, evolutionary psychology is concerned with determining the nature of our universal evolved cognitive adaptations (Plotkin, 1998). Specifically, it is "a conceptually integrated approach in which theories of selection pressures are used to generate hypotheses about the design features of the human mind" (Barkow, Cosmides, & Tooby 1999). What is unique to this perspective is that the evolution of the human mind does not differ from the evolution of other human organs. Just as form and function define a human heart, so can the principles of form and function be applied to the human mind. And just as all human hearts are species-typical (the same for all humans), so is the human mind.

A major assumption of this perspective is that the human mind contains a large number of "innate learning mechanisms." Evolutionary psychologists focus on analyzing these evolved mechanisms, the contexts that activate them, and the behavior generated by them (Barkow , Cosmides &Tooby, 1992). They assume that these mechanisms are domain-specific and functionally specialized rather than domain-general and unspecialized. These mechanisms have evolved to solve specific adaptive problems in the ancestral environment. They are triggered by only a narrow range of information, which is transferred through decision rules and manifested in the form of behavior that increased fitness in the past. With the exception of these general characteristics, these evolved mechanisms are variable as the adaptive problems they were designed to solve. A frequently used analogy to describe this view of the mind is a carpenter's tool box where a carpenter's flexibility comes not from having a single general all-purpose tool that accomplishes the tasks of sawing, hammering, and screwing but instead from having many specialized tools. Just as there are no general problems, there is no adequate general all-purpose mechanism that addresses the complex problems faced by humans throughout their evolutionary history. (Buss,1999)

Problems faced by our ancestors' often involved aspects of individual survival and the challenges of functioning in social groups. Living in groups enhanced an individual's chances of survival and reproduction while creating a host potential adaptive problems.

For example, group hunting of large game that occurred in ancestral hunter-gatherer societies presented the adaptive problems of division of labor and coordinating group efforts for successful hunting, which necessitated good communication. Pinker (1994) suggest that language evolved for the purpose of gathering, sharing, and applying knowledge, which gave humans a competitive edge over other organisms. In addition, while behavioristic approaches have proven inadequate to explain how humans acquire language, an evolutionary approach demonstrates that among other things language is learned by not simply imitating what an individual hears, but in conjunction with an internal domain-specific mechanism, indicative of inherent abstract rules of speech. (Chomsky, 1972; Pinker, 1994).

Evolutionary psychology does not represent a continuation of the nature versus nurture debate nor does this perspective predispose humans to genetically inflexible behavior patterns. Instead, it presents a dialectical relationship that exists between our evolutionary history, life-span development and the environment that together shape human behavior. Behavior variability results from the interaction of these environmental, development and contextual factors. The evolutionary perspective does not describe human behavior and culture as governed by rigid instincts; instead it is guided by universally shared complex and specific psychological mechanisms that allow for greater flexibility in responding to everyday problems (Plotkin, 1998). Understanding these mechanisms is essential in developing a more complete picture of the learning process of adults and related practices.

Evolutionary Psychology and Adult Learning

A learning paradigm viewed from an evolutionary perspective begins to address questions that are often overlooked by other cognitive theories that of "what is the human brain ultimately designed to do?"(Kenrick, Sadella, & Keefe, 1998, p. 485). And "what does the design of the brain reveal about our understanding how adults learn?" These questions rest on the assumption that human cognitive processes evolved through a process of natural selection manifesting domain specific psychological mechanisms. It is these evolve mechanisms that need to be consider when developing a complete picture of how adult learn.

There are three important conclusions that can be drawn from the concept of domain specific mechanisms that offer insight into adult learning. The first is that these mechanisms predispose humans to learn certain things in certain ways (Geary 1995; Bjorklund, 1997). Geary (1995) argues that these mechanisms provide humans with implicit primary cognitive abilities that enhance the ease and enjoyment of learning within these domains. Also, these abilities are found pan-culturally (across all cultures). On the other hand, culturally based secondary cognitive abilities, those resulting from the co-optation of primary abilities for uses other than their original design, are found in some cultures and not others. Often when primary abilities are co-opted for uses for which they were not designed, they may not function optimally (Crawford, 1998). Therefore, developing secondary cognitive abilities are more difficult and are rarely accomplished without sustained effort by the learner (Geary, 1995). For example, habitat navigation ability, developing a map-like representation of the environment, is indicative of an internal and universal domain specific mechanism where humans have "an implicit, although imprecise, understanding of some fundamental features of Euclidean geometry (e.g., that a line from one point to another is straight)" (p. 26), while the learning of complex geometry is a secondary cognitive ability and not a species-typical (Geary 1995). It is necessary for educators to realize that developing secondary cognitive abilities is more difficult due to the absence of an innate foundation for their development. In addition, cross-cultural differences in biologically secondary abilities is more a result of the different emphasis that formal schooling places on certain abilities rather than intercultural differences in aptitude (Geary, 1995).

The second conclusion rests on the assumption that some mechanisms, although adaptive in the past may not be beneficial in our contemporary environment. For example, the inherent predisposition of phobias, such as the fear of snakes and spiders, evolved in response to the challenges associated with everyday survival (Driscoll, 1994). However, in modern society humans are at a greater risk from cars accidents and electrical outlets than they are from snakebites and have not evolved to fear these more contemporary risks. An evolutionary perspective supports the view that unlearning these inherent fears may be extremely difficult. The educational implications are significant, such that relying predominantly on a rationale approach to changing phobic behavior would most likely prove ineffective. Learners might rationally understand their illogical response, but the inherent fears will prevail unless they participate in a desensitization program that allows for an increased incremental exposure to the feared object (Lohordo & Droungas, 1985). Another example of an evolved psychological mechanism that does not function well in contemporary society is the preference for sweets and fats (Kenrick, Sadalla, & Keefe 1998). These preferences are thought to have evolved because sweets and fats were a valuable source of calories and energy for our ancestors. However these preferences now contribute to obesity, heart disease, high cholesterol and diabetes. Unlearning these preferences are quite challenging and unpleasant experiences, requiring intensive and ongoing educational instruction. Understanding the existence of these innate food preferences could be beneficial to health educators.

The persistence of gender roles in contemporary society is also an example of evolved domains that are no longer adaptive (Crawford, 1998). Gender roles evolved as adaptive solutions to many problems faced in ancestral hunter-gatherer societies but currently contribute little to individual fitness. Evolutionary psychologists predict that in domains where men and women faced the same adaptive problems no differences exist, while differences do exist where men and women experience different adaptive problem. (Buss, 1999). For example, Silverman and Philips (1998) reported of sex differences in solving specific spatial problems, such as route learning. Men are more likely to rely more on directional concepts and women on landmarks. Researchers suggest that the ultimate causation for these differences lies in the division of labor in ancestral societies where men hunted and women foraged. Evidence of evolutionary existence of spatial difference is demonstrated through universality (pan-culturally), heritability (twin studies), hormonal (e.g., estrogen levels), and hemispheric laterlization (brain organization). Recognizing these variations between sexes would ensure that for certain spatial skills more time is given in training for different skills. Also, these findings ultimately could provide support for a psychoanalytic feminist perspective (e.g., Gilligan, 1993) of adult learning.

The third conclusion of value to adult educators can be found in the dialectical relationship that exists between our historical, ontogenetic and situational context which together shape human behavior and learning. It is important for educators to realize that understanding human cognition based exclusively on the physiology of the brain or ontogenetic and situational context ignores a fundamental relationship that exists with our evolutionary history. This historical context manifests itself through our evolved psychological mechanisms. These mechanisms provide us with an innate source of information and abilities that influence and are influenced by our ontogenetic and immediate situational contexts. Evolved mechanisms are activated by specific situational input, which is then transferred through decision rules to output (behavior). Often more than one strategy is available to solve a problem, therefore individuals are shunted towards a particular strategy as a result of their immediate situation and their own individual development.

Recognizing that this complex dialectical relationship exists and realizing that domain specific psychological mechanisms influence a learning experience, could provide valuable insight into how adults learn. An example of how this perspective could enhance our understanding learning can be found in its applicability to the theory of situated cognition. The theory of situated cognition is based on the idea that adult learning and knowing are profoundly structured by the context in which they occur, where problem solving and cognition are preformed in association with the setting and not merely as internalized mental processes (Wilson, 1993). However, this theory does "not consider the biological starting point of development, the constraints that biological endowment might place on the directions of socially shaped cognitive development" (Resnick, 1994, p. 478). Therefore, this learning paradigm could be complemented by a broadened perspective that provides an understanding of how evolved mental mechanisms can influence an individual's learning in response to context. This perspective also supports the notion of authentic activity because as previously described, evolved psychological mechanisms are triggered by a narrow range of situational information (equivalent to situationally provided tools) that contribute to determining output. Recognizing these evolved mechanisms supports the notion that teaching should complement these structures, thus promoting an interaction between biology and the situational context of learning. For example, Bjorklund (1997) believes that formal schooling is unnatural and that the difficulty students have with reading and classroom mathematics is normal because their cognition evolved in an environment where these things did not exist.

Conclusion

Returning to the intent of this paper, that of exploring the "ghosts in the machine" evolutionary psychology broaden our understanding of adult learning, complementing our present emphasis on "meaning in making" in adult education. In the constructivist paradigm there are many ways to cognize the environment and each individual invents her or his own reality based on prior experience. Evolutionary psychologists would say that an accurate interpretation of the arrangement of objects, events and relationships in the environment would be precipitated by a biological intent to increase individual fitness. In other words, for our ancestors to have survived it, would have been necessary to accurately interpret and respond to environmental contingencies that dealt with problems related to an individual's survival and reproduction. The value of an evolutionary psychology in the current understanding of adult learning, is recognizing these domain specific psychological mechanisms and how they predispose and constraint our construction of the environment. Understanding this interrelationship will allow for a more complete comprehension of how adults learn.

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FACTORS IN THE WORK ENVIRONMENT TO CONTRIBUTE SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING IN THE WORKPLACE: A CRITICAL REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Dae Yeon Cho

Abstract

To offer practical and accessible information to people who want to better manage and control work environment for facilitating SDL in the workplace, this study discovered comprehensive factors from the related research literature review, which were published for the last decade. The factors could be blended together into eight synthesized factors. The eight factors again could be grouped into the broader three categories; factors related to learning resources, factors related to organizational work system and organizational climate factors. Finally, the study revealed three synthesized factors, which are more frequently addressed.

Introduction

The pace of global, economic, and technological development makes change an inevitable feature of our working life. More organizations have viewed a continuing process of training as a useful means of improving performance of all levels. However, it may not be feasible to plan training programs for every employee. In this context, the key to successful workforce development is that employees should take responsibility for their own learning. Many people appear to believe in the potential of self-motivated and self-managed learning and realize that they need to be self-directed learners as they mature. Simply put, the self-directed and managed learners can approach the workplace as a continual classroom.

Self-Directed Learning (SDL) might be the most dominant and a well-researched topic in the field of adult education (Brockett, 1994; Merriam & Caffarella, 1999). SDL appears to hold numerous advantages over traditional employee development strategies in the workplace as well. Traditional training efforts appear to be too time consuming and too expensive to be useful (Confessore, Confessore, & Greenberg, 1996). In a sense, as stated by Durr et al (1996), SDL can significantly be an alternative way for both effectiveness and efficiency of employee development in the workplace.

Yet the literature on SDL has heavily focused on the individuals as a learner (Foucher & Tremblay, 1993). Researchers have made great efforts to reveal how self-directed learners build up their learning goals, how to control their learning process to be self-directed, and the relationship between the readiness of self-directed and learners' personal characteristics such as educational level, creativity, learning style, learning goal, learning process. More specifically, much research on SDL has paid attention to a learner's internal learning process to be self-directed. Given a basic assumption that the employees in the workplace are deeply connected to the group or community (Candy, 1991; Brown & Duguid, 1991), and their organization (Confessore & Kops, 1998), researchers appear to lack considerations for interactive relationship between SDL and work environment where individuals work.

As mentioned by Brookfield (1995), we are still struggling to understand various factors that can impact SDL. Therefore, it appears vital to determine what factors in the work environment should be considered to facilitate SDL in the workplace. The purpose of this study is to offer practical and accessible information to people who want to better manage and control work environment for facilitating SDL in the workplace.

Research Questions

The study has following research questions: (1) what factors in the work environment have been considered to facilitate SDL in the existing research literature for the last decade?; (2) how can the factors be synthesized?; (3) what factors have been frequently addressed among the synthesized factors for the past decade?

Methods

In preparation for this review of the literature, the following databases were searched: ERIC and ABI/INFORM. The computer search produced several hundred abstracts of articles, reports, and presentation papers on SDL since 1990. But literature that describes factors in the work environment related to enhancing SDL in the workplace was not found except for a couple of studies. Therefore descriptors to the computer search needed to be extended to "work conditions". As a result, the study found seven research papers that addressed "work conditions" and "factors in the work environment" enhancing SDL in the workplace. A thorough review of the sources was completed. This study identified factors which the studies reported as influencing the success of SDL. Finally, this study blended together the findings from the studies through the process of determining, for example, whether two researchers were using the same words to describe different factors, or different words to describe the same factors.

Self-directed learning in the workplace

Today's rapid change produces a constant flow of new or updated knowledge. As most jobs change dramatically, the knowledge and the skills needed to be changed. However there may be doubt whether the expanded educational needs of the workforce to maintain individual and organizational competence can be met through a number of formal training activities. Furthermore most learning occurs incidentally and informally as part of daily work and experience from the workplace (Denny & Weldon, 1993). Foucher and Tremblay (1993) more specifically indicate that in corporate settings, most learning efforts (80%) occur informally, while 80% of training budgets are directed toward formal training activities.

Guglielmino and Guglielmino (1994) indicate three major reasons that we should pay more attention to SDL in the workplace: (1) organizational and technological change, (2) trends toward self-directed teams in the workplace, and (3) research findings that show a positive relationship between readiness for SDL and performance. Such reasons have forced many companies to reconsider SDL as an alternative way for employee development and education in light of effectiveness and efficiency.

SDL is a type of informal learning. According to Marsick and Watkins (1990), learning can take place as one of three types in many situations: formal, informal, and incidental. Comparing the characteristics among them, they view SDL as a good example of informal learning. Informal learning takes place where learning is not typically subject to designed control by trainers. In other words, employees can naturally learn when they are on the job, observing others, or participating in conversations. In this context, to make SDL an effective alternative means of obtaining competitive advantages in an era of increasing change, it needs to be systematically encouraged by an organization.

The employees with self-direction manage learning processes in terms of what is to be learned, when it is to be learned, and how it is to be learned by participating in informal learning through interaction with work environment and other workers. Trainers and HRD leaders appear to view SDL as a means of increasing flexibility in the delivery of training programs, and reducing training costs (Baskett, Dixon,.& Chuchmuch, 1994). As SDL is positively encouraged and launched at the level of an organization, as a consequence, SDL can be an effective way of employee development.

Findings

For SDL as a type of informal learning, without deeply understanding about work environment, we cannot anticipate any successful SDL outcomes (Bartlett & Kotrlik, 1999). As the concept of SDL is gradually moving more into the workplace, the work environment for SDL need to be considered (Durr, 1995).

To address the research questions, the study chose seven research papers and carefully reviewed each of the seven studies. As shown in the table 1, thirty-two factors, which influence SDL in the workplace, are discovered. Some factors in one research appear to be similar (or same as) to those described in the other research. Therefore, the findings from the studies need to be blended together. These factors can be synthesized into eight synthesized factors as shown in the table 1. For ease of use, discussion, and further study, the study again grouped eight synthesized factors into the broader three categories: factors related to learning resources, factors related to organizational work system, and factors related to organizational climate.

(a) Factors related to learning resources. SDL may be encouraged through two forms, human resources and non-human resources (Kops, 1996). First, in terms of human resources, a manager with leadership skills should have a significant role as a facilitator to help employees identify their needs and follow up on their learning. Also managers can show a good example of SDL to their subordinates. Besides, based on effective communication systems, peer learning, mentoring, learning contracts, and learning projects, co-workers can encourage each other to learn new work-related information.
On the other hand, various and abundant learning materials and references should be available to all employees. Employees are able to access an almost unlimited range of information without leaving their own desks.

(b) Factors related to organizational work systems. The success of SDL in the workplace depends on the degree of organizational work systems. First, SDL should be adopted as an organizational strategy, and then it should be expressed through management policy such as an organizational goal statement, strategic, and operational planning. In other words, the use of SDL strategy needs to be formalized into corporate policy. Second, performance appraisal regarding SDL should be perceived by others through group reflection. Individuals should be involved in performance appraisal. This system is to provide feedback to an individual or group in terms of its performance and developmental opportunities regarding SDL. As a consequence, individuals know how their actions contribute to the organization's goals and their input is valued. Particularly group reflection for discussing work-related issues may be a productive way to share individual experiences regarding SDL. Third, decision-making processes, reward, and communication systems also should be considered as important work systems. Given the effective communication systems, more open interaction between departments and between individuals can enhance the opportunity for SDL efforts. Through the decision making process with autonomy and reward systems, an individual takes responsibility for her or his own learning as well as tasks.

(c) Factors related to organizational climate. If the climate is not established, designing and implementing SDL will be difficult. However, organizational climate is the prevailing factor in an organization that results from other factors (Kops, 1996). This study identifies two representative components of organizational climate in order to enhance SDL in the workplace. One is "working together." Given the mutual respect and shared value, individuals are able to work together. If managers and employees do not trust one another, employees may not participate fully and freely in SDL efforts. The other factor is a supportive environment characterized by encouraging learning opportunities, risk-taking, tolerance of mistakes, diverse and innovative ideas and so on. Employees should realize that the learning climate is strongly supported by an organization. To do this, managers should view learning as valuable activity.

The study also presents a matrix of a synthesized list of factors placed into 3 categories with each study in table 2. The synthesized factors of a work environment, which have been frequently addressed in the analyzed research, were policy incorporating SDL strategy, a supportive environment, and working together.

Conclusion

Through a review of literature, this study discovered thirty-two factors in the work environment. These factors could be synthesized into eight subcategories. The study showed that eight subcategories again could be grouped into the broader three categories such as factors related to learning resources, factors related to organizational work system and organizational climate factors. This study uncovered that policy incorporating SDL strategy, a supportive environment, and working together among the 8 synthesized factors frequently addressed for the last decade. Finally, for further study, the synthesized work environmental factors presented in this study need to be demonstrated whether they empirically can be affected on SDL in the workplace.

Table 1. Factors contributing to SDL in the workplace

List of all factors		Synthesized list		
Availability of resources	→	Resources available with easy access	→	Factors related to learning resources
Abundant resource				
Easy access to resources				
Learning center				
Presence of a facilitator	→	Manager as a facilitator with leadership		
Manager who set a learning by example				
Manager with leadership				
Peer learning	→	Learning together		
Career planning (mentoring, learning contract, learning project)				
Policy incentives	→	Policy incorporating SDL strategy	→	Factors related to organizational work system
Formalization of SDL strategy				
Adopted as an organizational strategy				
Change in organizational philosophy				
Direction and planning in the goal statement				
Performance level perceived by others	→	Performance appraisal with group		
Involving individuals in performance appraisal				
Group reflection				
Decision making process with autonomy	→	Working structure		
Reward system				
Effective communication system				
Interaction	→	Working together	→	Factors related to organizational climate
Cooperation				
Collaboration				
Mutual respect				
Help seek				
Shared value between individual and organization				
Support innovation	→	Supportive environment		
Encourage opportunities to learn				
Learning is valued				
Risk-taking				
Tolerance of mistake				
Diversity of idea and opinion				

Table 2. Factors / Source Matrix

Synthesized factors/Source		B&K[1] (1999)	B[2] (1993)	F&T[3] (1993)	F[4] (1997)	G&G[5] (1994)	K[6] (1997)	S[7] (1999)
Factors related to learning resources	Resources available with easy access			●		●	●	
	Manager as a facilitator with leadership		●	●			●	
	Learning together	●		●				
Factors related to organizational work systems	Policy incorporating SDL strategy		●	●	●	●	●	
	Performance appraisal with group	●	●	●				
	Structure		●				●	●
Factors related to organizational climate	Working together	●	●				●	●
	Supportive environment	●	●		●	●	●	

1) Bartlett & Kotrlik 's work (1999).
2) Baskett's work (1993).
3) Foucher & Tremblay's work (1993)
4) Foucher's work (1997)
5) Guglielmino & Guglielmino's work (1994)
6) Kops' work (1997)
7) Starak's work (1999).

(A list of references will be provided at the conference)

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FACULTY LIVED EXPERIENCES IN THE ONLINE ENVIRONMENT

Simone Conceição-Runlee, Ph.D.

ABSTRACT: This phenomenological study investigated the meaning of the teaching experiences of faculty in the online environment. Findings suggest that teaching online is work intensive because of the length of engagement before and during instruction and the depth of engagement during the delivery of a course. However, it is also rewarding for the instructors when they experience satisfaction throughout the process of design and delivery of instruction.

Over the last few years there have been very rapid changes in the field of higher education associated with developments in communication and information technologies. A paramount initiative has been the extensive use of computer-mediated communication by higher education institutions to deliver networked support to adult learners enrolled in online courses or programs, thus permitting learner interaction with both peers and teachers. These changes have required instructors to rethink how to design and deliver instruction to adult learners because teaching online when no face-to-face meetings occur involves more than just using the medium to supplement instruction.

Much of the research related to online instruction is presented from the analysis of the learners' experience (Burge, 1994; McLoughlin & Oliver, 1995; Wilkes & Burnham, 1991) or from investigations of instructors who have taught partially online (Conceição-Runlee & Reilly, 1999; Diekelmann, Schuster, & Nosek, 1998). In addition, research related to faculty who participate in distance teaching in higher education has focused mainly on the changing role of the instructor (Beaudoin, 1990; Gunawardena, 1992), the role of teaching (Sammons, 1988), faculty planning for distance teaching (Wolcott, 1993), the lack of faculty development (Dillon & Walsh, 1992), tenure, promotion, and rewards (Wolcott, 1997), and institutional support (Olcott & Wright, 1995). Therefore, this study attempted to explain the experiences of faculty who teach in an online environment by answering the following question: How do college faculty perceive and describe their online teaching experiences in a computer-mediated environment which is fully absent of the physical presence?

Methodology

A phenomenological study design was considered the most suitable methodology for this study because it provides a clear process for setting aside the researcher's preconceptions about the phenomenon of online teaching and offers a shared examination of the phenomenon by the researcher and study participants. The goal of a phenomenological study is to explore the phenomenon of online teaching as experienced by college faculty. This study followed Moustakas' (1994) approach to phenomenological research by focusing on the situation in which the investigated experience occurred.

Participants were selected using a purposeful sampling (Patton, 1990) of 10 college faculty. Data were collected using semi-structured open-ended interviews conducted at the participants' site of preference with follow-up interviews via electronic mail. The researcher followed the essential processes that characterize a phenomenological analysis: Epoche, phenomenological reduction, imaginative variation, and synthesis of meanings and essences. The outcome of this study is a description of the essence of the experience of online teaching. Member checks and peer examination were used to increase trustworthiness of this inquiry (Merriam, 1998; Mertens, 1998).

Findings and Discussion

Two major themes emerged from the phenomenological data analysis of the meaning of the online teaching experiences: *work intensity* and *rewards*.

WORK INTENSITY: Faculty described online teaching as work intensive due to the **length of engagement** before and during instruction and the **depth of engagement** during the delivery of a course.

Length of Engagement: According to faculty, teaching an online course required more time to design and deliver instruction than a regular face-to-face course. In order to design instruction in an online environment, faculty identified the need for organizing content and preparing course materials in advance because creating and conducting an online course simultaneously could be an overwhelming task for an instructor.

Once the online course was designed and placed in the online environment, the delivery of instruction involved less time than traditional teaching. Two different studies in the distance education literature focusing on online instruction address faculty workload. The first study suggests that faculty workload depends on the experience of the instructor and the level of institutional support (Visser, 2000). The second study argues that faculty workload is dependent on the amount and quality of the instructional design and development effort; thus faculty workload for teaching and delivering online courses is dependent on the context of the intended audience (DiBiase, 2000). The findings of the current study suggest that teaching online increases faculty workload because of the length of engagement during the design and delivery of a course.

The distance education studies concerning the use of technologies address course delivery by emphasizing the role the instructor plays while interacting with learners (Beaudoin, 1990; Gunawardena, 1992). The instructor's role requires different teaching functions and seems to be more work intensive than traditional instruction. The results of the current study support much of the recent literature addressing the online teaching functions. Faculty identified managing a course in the integrated software program as one of the important online teaching functions. Course management involved uploading files, using web links, and managing the threaded discussions. In this function, the online instructor works as a facilitator by providing the initial structure and referring learners to other resources (Olcott & Wright, 1995).

Another teaching function identified in the current study by faculty was monitoring and assessing learner performance, which involved providing learner feedback and maintaining a record of learner work during the delivery of the course. Providing learner feedback included grading assignments and returning comments to learners via electronic format. Record keeping involved using a rubric for online content assessment. When performing these functions, the instructor needed to construct and explain expectations regarding formal writing assignments and content of general discussions as accurately as possible. Although time consuming, this teaching function was considered significant because it had a greater impact on the individual learner. In addition, announcing information in the online environment, presenting multiple perspectives on topics, and emphasizing salient points were also tasks recognized by faculty as time consuming, but important because they clarified course expectations.

Faculty acknowledged providing technical assistance or being available for learners via different communication technologies as a learner support function. According to the literature about support for distance learners using any distance education technology, the instructor performs the function of linking the academic program and the learners to academic and support services. This function may at times go in different directions having the faculty member become the whole program (Granger & Benke, 1998). Data findings of the current study reveal indeed that the role of the instructor may go beyond the delivery of the course by helping learners familiarize themselves with the technology. This learner support function can be time consuming and increase faculty workload.

One finding of the current study that diverges from the literature is the concept of maintaining course continuity throughout the course delivery. In the current study, course continuity means the ability of the instructor to create a learning environment that gives learners a look and believe that the learning experience is real. Maintaining course continuity results in more interactions between learners and faculty and increased work for the faculty member. Because an online course is available 24 hours a day and interactions are random, the online environment gives a sense of omnipresence to faculty due to the notion that a learner can interact with the instructor at any time (Conceição-Runlee & Reilly, 1999).

Depth of Engagement: For faculty, the online interactions were a lot of work and time consuming because they involved a strong cognitive and affective effort during the delivery of the course. Cognitive effort is associated with the mental processes by which faculty went through to deliver instruction, while affective effort pertains to beliefs resulting from an emotional state of consciousness due, in part, to the lack of physical presence. Faculty acknowledged that when teaching online it was challenging to stay engaged in a conversation, keep the class focused, distinguish between administrative and personal information, pursue a comprehensive discussion, and create a mental image of what learners look like.

Faculty identified the online interactions as time consuming because they required an extended engagement during the delivery of the course. This engagement involved a strong cognitive and affective effort from the instructor who was challenged by the tasks to keep the class connected. Without verbal and visual cues from learners, it became mentally demanding for the instructor to stay engaged in a conversation, keep the class focused, distinguish between administrative and personal information, and pursue an in-depth discussion. Verbal and visual cues serve as feedback for the instructor in a traditional classroom setting. However, in an online environment, participants of computer conferencing express discomfort if they do not become deeply involved in online interactions (Phillips & Pease, 1987).

Faculty acknowledged that there was a need to be more attentive in order to emotionally engage with learners and it was difficult to be personal online. In an online environment, impersonal experiences were described as the ones that lacked immediate feedback, there was a formality of communication, and spontaneity was lost.

Faculty reported that it became emotionally challenging for them to be personal online and engaged with learners because instructors had no knowledge of learners' needs and feelings without in-depth involvement with learners. This finding corresponds to the literature on experience of faculty who teach in a computer-mediated environment, which emphasizes a need for personal connection between learners and the instructor in an online environment (Conceição-Runlee & Reilly, 1999; Phillips & Pease, 1987). This need for personal connectedness is an attempt to humanize the online classroom (Conceição-Runlee & Reilly, 1999), which requires faculty to use creativity and work more diligently with learners in a deliberate way. Being creative meant establishing an open communication between instructor and learners and using other forms of communication technologies such as audioconferencing to engage with learners.

REWARDS: Though the meanings of the online teaching experiences of college faculty indicate work intensity, teaching online was also rewarding because instructors gained satisfaction from the online teaching experience. Faculty reported that online teaching was satisfying when they were personally engaged in the process of designing and delivering instruction. This process is rewarding because the instructor was learning by doing, invigorating when the experience was dynamic and exciting because it required thinking and reflecting on how to deliver instruction in a new way, enjoyable when they watched learners interface with each other, gratifying because faculty members got to know their learners better, satisfying when faculty gained knowledge from interacting with learners, and empowering because teaching online could be done anywhere. This finding supports Taylor and White's (1991) research, which shows that instructors are motivated by prestige and self-esteem, rather than monetary rewards.

Conclusions and Implications for Practice

Findings of this study suggest that teaching online is work intensive because of the length of engagement before and during instruction and the depth of engagement during the delivery of a course. Designing an online course involves preparing course content and setting up materials in the integrated software program in advance. Delivering an online course involves managing the course in the integrated software program, monitoring and assessing learner performance, providing course clarification, maintaining continuity, and providing learner support. Both design and delivery of instruction involve a greater amount of time than face-to-face instruction. Engagement during the delivery of an online course is time consuming because it involves in-depth cognitive effort in order to stay engaged in a conversation, keep the class focused, distinguish between administrative and personal information, and pursue in-depth discussion, and in-depth affective effort in order to be personal online and engaged with the learners. Albeit the meaning of the online teaching experiences of college faculty appears to indicate work intensity, online teaching is also rewarding for the instructors when they experience satisfaction throughout the process of design and delivery of online instruction.

This study has practical implications for adult education as it relates to teaching improvement, instructional design, and administrative support. This study can help faculty members gain a faculty perspective on online teaching and in turn recognize that it may requir[illegible] lot of time initially to design and deliver instruction, but online teaching can also be rewarding. Additionally, this study can help faculty think about the role of the instructor in light of the type of teaching practices one experiences while teaching online.

In this study, there was no reference to the assistance of an instructional designer from study participants in the development of their online courses. There is a potential to involve instructional design personnel during the design phase of the course development, which could result in less work for faculty. This study can also assist instructional designers by raising their awareness of the experiences faculty encounter when teaching in an online environment. This knowledge will enable instructional designers to advise faculty of less time consuming ways to design and deliver instruction.

As a final point, this study can help administrators recognize faculty members' need for time release given the length of engagement required to design and deliver an online course and consequently reexamine faculty workload and compensation for online teaching.

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ANDRAGOGY: ITS RESEARCH VALUE FOR PRACTICE

Mary K. Cooper & John A. Henschke

Although andragogy became popularized in the 1970's and 1980's in the USA through the work of Malcolm Knowles, its original introduction into the USA was in 1927 by E. C. Lindeman and M. L. Anderson. However, the oldest known published document using the concept was authored by a German -- Alexander Kapp, in 1833. Much of the published literature in recent times has focused on the popularized use of the term, reflecting either a wholesale support of Knowles' version of andragogy, or a "debunking" for the reason of what some call Knowles' unscientific approach.

This study seeks to determine the major foundational works published on andragogy in order to provide a clear and understandable linkage between the research on andragogy and the practice of andragogy. Although there are hundreds of dissertations and publications researching at least some aspect of Andragogy, after extensive content analysis, there appears to be eighteen (18) major English language works which form the most broad, deep, understandable and justifiable foundation linking research, theory and practice in andragogy. These publications are described within this paper and identified with an asterisk (*) in the reference section after the conclusion of the paper.

Introduction and Background

Andragogy has been used by some as a code word for identifying the education and learning of adults. It has been used by others to designate different strategies and methods that are used in helping adults learn. Still others use the term to suggest a theory that guides the scope of both research and practice on how adults learn, how they need to be taught, and elements to be considered when adults learn in various situations and contexts. Again, still others consider andragogy as a set of mechanical tools and techniques for teaching adults. Then others consider that andragogy implies a scientific discipline that examines dimensions and processes of anything that would bring people to their full degree of humaneness.

Since the introduction of andragogy into the USA, extensive published English language literature has addressed and critiqued various aspects of its conceptual meaning and use. However, much of what has been published focuses only on its popularized use, reflecting either a wholesale support of Knowles' version of andragogy and the attendant excitement it generates, or a fairly straightforward debunking and dismissal for the reason of what some call Knowles' unscientific approach. Most of the published material on andragogy that reaches beyond these limitations is largely untapped and not understood, but nevertheless provides a broader and deeper foundation of the concept and its application to the theory, research and practice of adult education and adult learning.

It has been suggested by Savicevic (1999) that andragogy is defined as a scientific discipline, which deals with problems relating to adult education and learning in all of its manifestations and expressions, whether formal or informal, organized or self-guided, with its scope of research covering the greater part of a person's life. It is linked with advancing culture and performing:

professional roles and tasks, family responsibilities, social or community functions, and leisure time use. All of these areas are part of the working domain of the practice of adult, continuing, community and extension education. It could be said that a clear connection is established from the research to practice of andragogy, with andragogy being the art and science of helping adults to learn and the and the study of adult education theory, processes, and technology all relate to that end.

The Research

The purpose of this study was to answer the question: What are the major foundational English works published on andragogy that may provide a clear and understandable linkage between the research on andragogy and the practice of andragogy within the field of adult education? A search of the topic – andragogy – revealed that time would not permit the study of all sources identified because the list is still expanding through continuing discovery of additional references (there are more that 170 doctoral dissertations focused on the topic). However, the numerous sources that were tapped included scientific research studies, theoretical think pieces, and reports on experiences and/or results from practical applications. The interpretative form of research sought out the major themes in the text of works on andragogy that were studied. The major themes discovered are: Evolution of the term andragogy; historical antecedents shaping the concept of andragogy; comparison of the American and European understandings of andragogy; popularization of the American concept of andragogy; practical applications of andragogy; and, theory and definition of andragogy.

Evolution of the Term Andragogy. Van Gent (1996) asserts that andragogy has been used to designate the education of adults, an approach to teaching adults, social work, management, and community organization. Its future lies only as a generic term for adult education and as a complement to pedagogy. Draper (1998) reflects on and presents an overview of the historical forces influencing the origin and use of the term andragogy: the humanistic social philosophy of the 1700s & 1800s, early twentieth century labor movement in Germany and USA, international expansion of adult education since World War II, commonalities of different terminologies, the debate in North America, the progressive philosophy underlying andragogy in North America, stimulation of critical discussion and research, and the viability of andragogy as a theory. He concludes, "Tracing the metamorphoses of andragogy/adult education is important to the field's search for identity. The search for meaning has also been an attempt to humanize and understand the educational process."

Historical Antecedents Shaping the Concept of Andragogy. Savicevic (1991, 1999a) suggests that Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, the Sophists, Ancient Rome, the epochs of humanism and the renaissance all reflect thoughts and views about the need of learning throughout life. Also the particularities and manners of acquiring knowledge in different phases of life, and about moral and aesthetic impact. He also credits J. A. Comenius in the seventeenth century with being regarded the founder of andragogy with his primary wish to provide comprehensive education and learning for one and all to the full degree of humaneness, and urging the establishment of special institutions, forms, means, methods and teachers for work with adults. In addition, he theorizes that the institutional basis for adult education actually formed in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries in Britain and other countries with the emergence of Mechanics'

Institutes, workers' colleges & educational associations, university extensions, board schools for adult instruction, correspondence education, and people's universities.

Henschke (1998a) goes back earlier in history and claims that the language of the Hebrew prophets, before the time of Jesus Christ, with the meaning of various Hebrew words -- learn, teach, instruct, guide, lead, and example/way/model -- provides and especially rich and fertile resource to interpret andragogy. He expects that by combining a probe of these words and elements with other writings, a more comprehensive definition of andragogy may evolve.

Comparison of the American and European Understandings of Andragogy. Savicevic (1991, 1999a) provides a critical consideration of andragogical concepts in ten European Countries – five western (German, French, Dutch, British, Finnish), and five eastern (Soviet, Czecho-Slovak, Polish, Hungarian, Yugoslav). This comparison shows common roots but results in five varying schools of thought: Whether andragogy is parallel to or subsumed under pedagogy in the general science of education; whether agology (instead of andragogy) is understood as a sort of integrative science which not only studied the process of education and learning but also other forms of guidance and orientation; whether andragogy prescribes how teachers and students should behave in educational and learning situations; the possibility of founding andragogy as a science is refuted; and, that endeavours have been made to found andragogy as a fairly independent scientific discipline. Savicevic (1999a, 1999b) clearly aligns himself with the fifth school of thought in that this research aims toward establishing the origin and development of andragogy as a discipline, the subject of which is the study of education and learning of adult in all its form of expression. He believes that it requires an understanding of andragogy in Europe and America through comparing and contrasting

Robb (1990) believes that South African andragogics can enable improved understanding between Continental European and American adult educationists. However, for this improvement to take place, he sees the need for three further studies: whether andragogy terminology is necessary; whether adult educationists are scientists; and, where adult educationists differ in America and Continental Europe, that could pave the way for a more adequate description of what andragogy is.

Popularizing of the American Concept of Andragogy. Anderson and Lindeman (1927) were first to bring the concept to America. Although they clearly stated that andragogy was the method for teaching adults, the term did not take hold in the new land until many year later. Knowles (1970, 1980, 1989, 1996) acquired the term the in 1967 from Dusan Savicevic and infused it much of his own meaning garnered from his already extensive experience in adult education. He then combined his expanding practice around the world, his university teaching of budding adult educators, and the publication of **The Modern Practice of Adult Education: Andragogy and Pedagogy** during the 70s & 80s. This American version of andragogy became popularized as a result. The main structure of his andragogical expression took the form of a process design instead of a content design, with assumptions and processes. The assumptions about adult learners are: they are self-directing, their experience is a learning resource, their learning needs are focused on their social roles, their time perspective is one of immediate application, they are intrinsically motivated, they want to problem-solve, and they want to know why they need to know something. The learning processes adults want to be actively involved in are: a climate conducive to learning, cooperative planning, diagnosing their needs, setting objectives, designing the sequence, conducting the activities, and evaluating their progress.

Practical Applications of Andragogy. Mezirow (1981) developed a critical theory of adult learning and education, and laid the groundwork for what he called a charter for andragogy that included twelve core concepts. Suanmali's (1981) doctoral dissertation focuses on the agreement of 174 adult educators, including professors and practitioners, on the of those core concepts that all related to self-direction in learning. The major theme was that to assist adults to enhance their capability to function as self-directed learners, the educator must: decrease learner dependency, help learners use learning resources, help learners define his/her learning needs, help learners take responsibility for learning, organize learning that is relevant, foster learner decision-making and choices, encourage learner judgment and integration, facilitate problem-posing and problem-solving, provide supportive learning climate, and emphasize experiential methods.

Billington's (1988, 2000) doctoral dissertation studies sixty men and women to determine what key factors helped them grow or if absent made them regress and not grow. The seven factors were: a class environment of respect; their abilities and life achievements acknowledged; intellectual freedom, self-directed learning, experimentation and creativity encouraged; learner treated fairly and as an intelligent adult; class is an intellectual challenge; interaction promoted with instructor and between students; regular feedback from instructor.

Henschke (1998b) emphasized that in preparing educators of adults, andragogy becomes a way of being or an attitude of mind, and needs to be modeled/exemplified by the professor. Otherwise, if we are not modeling what we are teaching, we are teaching something else. Knowles (1970, 1980) provided in books numerous examples of the successful practice of andragogy.

Theory and Definition of Andragogy. Simpson (1964) very early proposed that andragogy could serve as a title for an attempt to identify a body of knowledge relevant to the training of those concerned with adult education. He posited that the main strands could be parallel to what already existed in child education. The main strand would be the study of: Principles of adult education, the study of adults, educational psychology of adults, and generalized andragogical methods for teaching adults. He issued a call for adult education to do this.

The most comprehensive of all the publications on andragogy is a book that includes thirty of the author's publications within a twenty-six year period (Savicevic, 1999). His work has addressed how andragogy has and will shape the literacy, the work place, universities, training and research, the humanistic philosophies, the evolution and future of andragogy and the practice of adult education. He also provided a number of descriptions and definitions of andragogy.

Henschke (1988a) attempted a descriptive definition of andragogy that moved in the direction of calling it a scientific discipline of study. Krajinc (1989) in echoing some others provides the most succinct and pointed definition of andragogy to date, and perhaps the most beneficial, as she states, "Andragogy has been defined as…'the art and science of helping adults learn and the study of adult education theory, processes, and technology to that end'."

Conclusion: Implications of Applications of the Findings to the Practice or Theory

While it has not been possible to go into the depth needed for a better understanding of andragogy in this paper due to space limitations, hopefully the six major themes that have emerged are enough to encourage the adult education practitioner and researcher to continue her/his exploration (practice and/or research) of the concept of andragogy. One value of this research for practice is that much of it emerged out of research as indicated by the title of Savicevic's book (1999), **Adult Education: From Practice to Theory Building.** A second value is for those practitioners who are willing to use andragogy as a means for: finding out, learning, and ascertaining new things for their own growth; and understanding. Realizing fresh ways to improve their practice of adult education; and, enhancing the enlightenment and illumination of the adult constituents they serve on their journey to a full degree of humaneness.

The first known use of andragogy is in 1833, where Alexander Kapp uses it in a discourse on Plato. (To see a copy of this publication please go to http://www.andragogy.net) Anderson and Lindemann brought the concept to the USA in 1927. While it has continued in Europe, often it has done so as a societal concept, going beyond education. The European and American versions have their differences, but a study of both is necessary to fully understand the term and put it into practice.

References -- Note: (*) indicates major foundational English work in andragogy

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TRANSFORMING STAFF DEVELOPMENT IN ADULT LITERACY EDUCATION

Christopher M. Coro

ABSTRACT: This action research project seeks to establish a critical, problem-based model for staff development that can help adult literacy practitioners integrate this same approach into their classroom instruction. A theoretical framework guides the design and implementation of this project.

INTRODUCTION

The 1993 National Adult Literacy Survey not only redefined common conceptions of what constitutes literacy, it also pointed out the sad fact that much of the nation's adult population suffer significant literacy skills deficiencies. In fact, nearly half of the nation's adult population is functioning at very low levels of literacy (ICC, 1999). As workers, family members and community members in a democratic and multi-cultural society like the U.S., these adults are unable to function adequately. It is not surprising, then, that the demand for literacy instruction nationally is greater than ever before (Quigley, 1997; Venezky et al., 1996).

In the midst of such a significant and wide-scale problem, it is perhaps somewhat surprising to note that unlike the K-12 world of education, the field of adult literacy has no commonly recognized credential or way to ensure quality of practice. Most instruction is by low-paid, part-time teachers, tutors or volunteers with minimal training (Perin, 1999; Quigley, 1997). Cranton (1996) observed that, "Many adult educators do not have formal preparation for their roles and therefore tend to teach in the way they were taught" (p. 105). Unfortunately, teaching the way they were taught does not appear to be an adequate response to the problem.

The low levels of participation in literacy programming have been interpreted as evidence of the inadequacy of current adult literacy education. Quigley (1997) reported that nationally, only 8% of those in need of literacy services were participating. Quigley noted that many—if not most—adults acknowledged the need for literacy education but held that what was offered had little relevance to their lives. He called for a critical reframing of our understanding of literacy education.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: NEED TO REFRAME ADULT LITERACY

Critical thinking (Brookfield, 1987) and critical reflection (Mezirow, 1991) are essential skills for adult development and continued lifelong learning. However, Mezirow (1996) noted that little discussion of the importance of such a critical approach to literacy development has occurred.

Freire and Macedo (1987) advocated a more learner-centered approach to adult literacy education that focused on the contextual, real-life problems of participating adults. Like Mezirow (1996), their concept of literacy was also one of more than mere alphanumeric skill sets. As

Mezirow observed, "It will not do to define literacy in reductionistic terms of basic coding and decoding skills . . . Critically reflective thought is indispensable if anyone is going to effectively learn how to solve problems . . . Unfortunately, educators have too often defined literacy solely in instrumental terms because this kind of learning is easier to evaluate using traditional forms of measurement' (p. 121).

And, as Morris and Tchudi (1996) discovered, learners themselves held a similar broader notion of what constitutes literacy skills. From the data collected by interviewing adults at all literacy levels these researchers concluded the necessity of understanding adult literacy within a more contextual and socially critical framework. Literacy, they learned, was more than the basic prose, document and quantitative skills measured by the 1992 National Adult Literacy Survey. Literacy also involved critical and reflective skills as well as more dynamic, decision-making skills. Stein (2000) has found similar results from her work with adult learners who helped define the National Institute for Literacy's Equipped for the Future (EFF) curriculum framework. According to Stein, what adults need to know involves literacy learning that is relevant, contextual and constructivist. Degener (2001) too affirmed the need for integrating a more critical pedagogy into adult literacy if initiatives like EFF were to realize their full potential.

Mezirow (1996) noted that these more critical dimensions of adult literacy education are seldom, if ever, addressed in adult literacy classrooms. Quigley (1997) suggested that one reason for this might be an almost patronizing "maternal humanistic" philosophy that seems to dominate the field. Another—perhaps related explanation—might be that adult educators are themselves adult learners (Cranton, 1996). As such, it is possible that in confronting the need to facilitate learning that is more critical and transformative in nature, adult educators—like many modern adults—find themselves "in over their heads" (Kegan, 1994). That is to say, perhaps adult literacy educators are being asked to teach skills they themselves have not mastered.

As noted above, many adult literacy practitioners are ill prepared for the demands of the job. Imel (1992) reported that adult education programs take place in settings that are characterized by a great deal of ambiguity, complexity, variety and conflicting values that make unique demands on adult educators' skills and knowledge. Kutner (1992) and Tibbetts et al. (1991) all found that many ABE and ESL teachers receive little or no training. Those who did receive training or preparation as adult educators received only minimal preparation.

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

While much is being done in the realm of adult literacy staff development (Belzer, Drennon and Smith, 2001), the content and process of most current staff development does not foster critical reflection and problem-based learning among adult educators (Cranton, 1994; Mezirow, 1996). This, then, presents a problem for the field to address. For, as Brookfield (1995) argued, if teachers are to promote learners' critical reflection—a key ingredient in the adult transformational learning process (Brookfield, 1995; Mezirow, 1991) and, as argued above, integrally part of more current understandings of literacy—then teachers must be able to model the process. The research questions thus become "Can staff development help teachers to adopt a more critical, problem-based approach to adult literacy instruction?" And, if so, "how?"

METHODOLOGY

Since the goal for this project is to link theory to practice, an action research model has been adopted. Adult transformative learning theory (Brookfield, 1995; Cranton, 1994, 1996; Mezirow, 1991) has been applied to challenges emerging from practice. Action research allows for a recursive and iterative approach (Leedy, 1997; Merriam and Simpson, 2000) consistent with the critical, problem-based nature of transformative adult learning (Brookfield, 1987; Daloz, 1999) and critical pedagogy (Degener, 2001; Freire and Macedo, 1987).

Kuhne and Quigley (1997), McKay (1992), Merriam and Simpson (2000) and Watson-Boone (2000) all identified similar steps in the action research process: (a) identifying an issue or problem for study, (b) implementing a plan of action, (c) evaluating results and re-initiating the research cycle.

The data sample consisted of 68 adult literacy instructors all employed at the Center for Adult Literacy and Basic Workforce Development of Northampton Community College in Bethlehem, PA. The Center is one of the largest adult literacy providers in Pennsylvania serving over 3000 adult learners in a four-county service area. Teachers were predominantly part-time employees though a small number (8) were full-time. They represented all program areas of adult literacy education (i.e. English as a Second Language, Adult Basic Education, General Educational Development, family and workplace literacy).

DEFINING THE PROBLEM

Building on the work of Caine and Caine (1997), in March 2000, a brief questionnaire was developed to assess the degree of teacher- versus learner-centeredness of each staff member. Variables assessed were sources of ideas for instruction, choices of materials, and means of assessing learner goals and progress. Individual responses were scored and averaged. To ensure intra-rater reliability, all responses were aggregated by item number and score and, then, checked for consistency of scoring. On a simple scale of 1 (teacher-centered) – 3 (learner-centered), the group averaged 1.8. The range was 1.4 to 2.4. These findings suggested that many of these teachers might not be comfortable with a more critical and problem-based approach to literacy. But, before committing to action steps, more data was needed to more clearly define the problem.

Six months later, Zinn's (1999) Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI) was used to further probe the above findings. Results appeared to correlate well with the earlier findings. Twenty-three percent of the staff identified the more teacher-centered behaviorist approach. An overwhelming majority of 60% favored the more middle-of-the-road progressive approach. Only 13% scored high in the more learner-centered humanist category. None of the staff demonstrated a primary preference for the more critical, problem-based radical philosophy of adult education.

IMPLEMENTING CHANGE

Within the context of the theoretical framework for this project, the above data suggested that staff were in need of changing or altering perspectives. Minutes from program improvement team meetings, evaluation results from staff development activities, and informal surveys suggested that staff wanted to become more learner-centered in their approach. Thus, it was decided to set up a model of staff development in which the medium was the message (McLuhan, 1967).

The number of contractual paid staff development hours was doubled from fifteen to thirty. Staff was informed that three of these hours would be used as a general orientation session to convene the project at a full staff in-service in September 2001. Similarly, three hours would be used to debrief the project and share results in June 2002. The remaining twenty-four hours were to be for individual staff members—working either individually or in collaborative groups of their own choosing—to define a practice-related problem, design an intervention, implement the intervention and monitor its effectiveness, evaluate the project and present its results to all staff at the June 2002 debriefing.

The only stipulations put on these practitioners were that they must identify and briefly explain a need for the project they choose and that they themselves (not a supervisor) must actually choose the project. To spark their thinking (Brookfield, 1995) in the six months prior to implementation of this project, staff received both written and spoken suggestions for possible project ideas.

EVALUATING THE CHANGE

Among the recorded potential benefits of participation in staff development grounded in problem-based learning are: enhanced collaborative relationships, changes in curriculum, increased interest in research and problem-solving, increased integration and use of technology, and improved design of appropriate assessment strategies (Henderson, Hunt and Wester, 1999). In their study of teachers participating in problem-based projects as a form of staff development, Vulliamy and Webb (1991) reported that, "all the teachers interviewed felt that in various ways the research process had contributed to their personal and professional development, jolting them out of comfortable ruts and rekindling enthusiasm" (p. 228). In order to evaluate these potential benefits several methods have been proposed.

In addition to the use of standardized instruments such as the PAEI, five staff members who are participants in this project were interviewed and suggested using journals, peer observation and video recording. Brookfield (1995) suggested these same techniques. Additionally, King (1997, 1999) has successfully devised and adapted a survey instrument to evaluate transformative learning experiences.

As the project continues to unfold and as evaluation data begin to amass, within the spirit of the theoretical framework guiding this project, it may be wise to remember the caveat of Degener (2001): the shift from less to more critical approaches to adult literacy education takes time.

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BEING A "COLLEGE STUDENT": THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE EXPERIENCE OF UNDER-PREPARED ADULT LEARNERS

John M. Dirkx, Regina Smith, Marilyn Amey

Abstract: The purpose of this study was to better understand the ways in which adult learners enrolled in developmental classes make sense of their community college experience. Our findings suggest that adult learners view this experience as a kind of academic redemption, in which they are able, with the support of the college, to make up for past academic transgressions and, through the construction of new hopes and dreams, lift themselves out of a sense of academic marginality. The findings support theoretical conceptions of identity grounded in situational specificity and human agency.

MaryBeth teaches developmental writing at Metro Community College. Each semester she faces about 25 students, most of them adult learners and many of whom are not at all sure why they are in this class. By semester's end, perhaps 12-14 students remain and neither MaryBeth nor the persisting students have much of an idea what happened to the others or why they stopped coming to class. It is a scenario that plays over and over again in all the other courses in Metro's program, and in community colleges across the country (Grubb & Associates, 1999). While policy-makers and educators continue to debate the reasons for this attrition problem, attention is increasingly focused on policies and practices that shape and inform developmental curricula (Boylan, 1999), and theories of identity conveyed through these curricula (Shaw, 1999). Curricular and pedagogical strategies that seek to integrate the subject matter and the learners' life experiences appear to offer the promise of reducing these alarming attrition rates. Yet, to do so requires a deeper understanding of the life contexts of developmental students and how they make sense of being in college. The purpose of this study was to better understand the ways in which adult learners enrolled in developmental classes make sense of their community college experience.

Theoretical Perspective

Each year thousands of individuals, who do not have skills in math, reading, or writing necessary to perform college-level work, enter American colleges or universities. Referred to as the academically "under-prepared" (Boylan, 2000), many of these learners never completed high school or have not been in a formal learning setting for many years. Due in large part to its open-door policy, community colleges enroll large numbers of underprepared students, comprising as much as 60% of a first-year class. We have a growing body of research on community college students (Rhoads & Valadez, 1996; Shaw, 1999; Shaw, Valadez, & Rhoads, 1999; Weis, 1985) as well as demographic profiles of underprepared learners in community colleges (Boylan, 2000; Cross, 2000). Few studies, however, have focused specifically on learners enrolled in developmental courses (e.g., Rhoads & Valadez, 1996). Scholars and practitioners have called for more research that names and gives voice to the experiences and knowledge that underprepared learners use to make sense of their lives.

The theoretical construct of identity captures both this sense of voice and the ways in which this particular educational context is experienced (Gergen, 1991). As Shaw (1999) suggests, community college practices typically reflect an "essentialist" approach to student identity, a stable set of intrinsic attributes that characterize the *essence* of a person and is relatively immutable. In critiquing this notion of identity, postmodern and critical identity theorists, offer two additional conceptions of identity, which stress the importance of socio-cultural context to one's sense of identity. Some, however, attribute our derived identity to social categories (race, class, gender) and differentials of power within specific contexts. Acknowledging context, others stress that aspects of identity are also derived from a sense of agency. That is, we freely choose certain identities. Becoming a student reflects this latter conception of identity (Shaw, 1999).

Research on community colleges largely reflects an organizational or institutional perspective teaching, learning, and identity construction. More work is needed, however, on the *learner's* perspective of the college experience. Such work will allow us to more solidly ground practice in the community college student's sense of identity. This study explores the experiences of adult learners enrolled in community college developmental classes and the conceptions of identity they use to make sense of these experiences.

Methods

Metro, a large community college located within a metropolitan area of the Midwest reports that about 15% of the college's 12,000 students participate in developmental education coursework. From a stratified random sample of this population, representing the distribution of students enrolled in one, two or three, or four developmental education courses, 25 first-year students were selected to participate. Most of the participants were in their mid to late twenties, with approximately equal numbers of women and men, and a wide diversity of racial and cultural backgrounds. Each participating learner was interviewed, using a semi-structured protocol, for approximately one hour. All interviews were tape-recorded and verbatim transcriptions of the recordings were prepared. Transcriptions were then edited to remove the interviewer's voice and sentence fragments or utterances for which the meaning could not be discerned. This process resulted in a more clear representation of the learners' stories, which were then subjected to qualitative analysis using constant comparative methods.

Findings

Metro's developmental education program provides adult learners a context in which they are able to seek a kind of academic redemption, re-constructing their lives and their sense of self. It is a process, in which they re-negotiate, both with themselves and the outer world, who they are as learners. Being in college seems to bring the academic sins of their past into bold relief but it also provides a potentially powerful context in which to foster new hopes and dreams. Virtually all these students bring to their first year experience a deep sense of academic history, which shapes and forms their sense of self as a learner but also fosters new hopes and dreams. While this process of self re-construction may reflect most students entering college (Baxter Magolda, 1999), the stories and life experiences of these underprepared adult learners convey journeys quite different from those who have enjoyed academic success prior to college. In the remainder of this paper, we summarize some of the major themes derived from the collective story of adult learners enrolled in Metro's developmental education program, including lessons of the self learned from prior schooling, hopes and dreams that promise to lift them out of this sense of marginality, and how their experience in community college affirms both their sense of limitations and a confidence that they can succeed. We conclude by further exploring the theme of academic redemption, suggesting underprepared adult learners use multiple conceptions of identity to make sense of their college student experience.

Prior school experiences. Adult learners in a college's developmental education program bring with them a history of academic struggle. While at times playing sports and maintaining an active social life, the students in our study were, in their high schools, largely at the academic margins. They invested their energies in the social side of high school life, which overshadowed any serious grasp of academics because they did not find reinforcement in the academic aspects of schooling,. Lela, who was in special education for much of her early schooling, said that "in classes for the people who didn't really excel, we just screwed around for an hour. The teacher didn't mind. "High school" she said, " [was] just a social hour, just a socializing thing for me." Don, one of the few who found high school to be a generally positive experience indicated that high school "was just fun every day...The classes were really fun....It was just fun."

With the exception of a few, these students took a dim view of the value of their academic life in school, continued to fall further behind and, in high school, some simply walked away. Perry, who regarded himself as the "black sheep of the family," was kicked out of several schools and eventually dropped out at 17. Sara, Jane, and Mary also dropped out but later obtained their high school diploma. Rather than reflecting limitations in ability, however, their low academic performances suggest an unwillingness to fully engage the academic side of school. At the time, not doing well academically didn't really matter very much. Reilly admitted to not taking high school very seriously. "I constantly skipped. I just didn't care." Most squeaked by with just barely passing grades. The collective profile of prior schooling emerging from this group of students is sharp contrast with traditional students admitted to four-year institutions.

Sense of self they bring to the college experience. As these learners began their college careers in developmental education, the experience evoked a sense of themselves as being academically at the margins. Some saw coming to Metro as a kind of public acknowledgment of this marginality. At first Gus was planning to go away to college but was discouraged by his parents from doing so, for reasons he now readily accepts: "I knew that I really wasn't ready to go off and be on my own and take care of studies." In explaining why she ended up at Metro, Reilly explained, "Because of my grades, I knew that I probably couldn't have gotten into any other school because of my GPA." They are also afraid of overloading themselves with a course load they can't handle. Enrolling in only a couple courses at a time, Andy observes, "I realize that I'm not really good at taking a full course [load]. Just the fact I might not be interested no more." Jane, too, reduced her load because she felt she could not handle five classes. "I can barely handle what I've got with reading and psych."

Specific subjects commonly aroused a sense of deficiency among many of these learners. Reilly is deathly afraid of English and math because "I never did very well in either one of them and I need them really bad....I just know I have a hard time with comprehension." Lela said she scored really low on her math and writing placement test. As if to underscore the point, she said, "I was never really good in writing either....I'm not a smart student."

While conveying a sense of academic marginality, these learners also communicated their strengths and an awareness of their limitations. Reflecting beyond traditional academics, Toya said, "I'm good at talking with people and getting them to see things my way" and "I like to read a lot." But she also seems to sense her limitations as well. "Lately, [math] doesn't seem to make sense." She recognizes that she did not do all that well in high school and attributes this performance largely to being lazy and not very motivated, aspects of herself that she seems to have addressed in coming to the community college. She proceeds cautiously but confident that, if she doesn't overdo it, she will succeed. Jane also exudes a high level of confidence in her ability to do what needs to be done. "It hasn't been all that difficult. I think I've been doing quite well...I didn't think I would be doing this well...I'm feeling more confident in myself because I am doing so well." She, too, senses her limitations and is cautious about doing only what she can handle."

They see themselves apart from what they perceive to be college-going students, separated from them by their schooling experiences and past academic performances. Yet, they have also begun to experience within their college experiences a sense of possibility. The community college experience has fostered a sense of meaning and confidence in their abilities not evident in their recollections of prior schooling. Jane, a single mother of a young daughter, observes that coming to the community college has "given me more purpose...something to do with myself...I want to be there. I wanna learn...It's been really good for me."

Hopes and dreams. Given their past educational experiences, it seems odd that any of these learners would seek out more education. Yet, they show up and, as Woody Allen, once quipped, then it's only a question of direction, manifest through distinct sense of hopes and dreams. As Mary put it, "I have no idea where [the desire to attend college] comes from...I was the one in my family that always hated school. But here I am. It's weird." In this college environment, their purposes and goals began to take shape. Some, such as Don, cast this process in terms of grades: "[I will be trying] to get a kinda higher GPA, trying to build up my GPA, probably just trying to understand how its gonna be next year [at a four year institution]. This idea of "building up" their academic record so they could eventually pursue further education and career goals was a common way students described their purposes and goals for being at Metro.

Many students exhibited this desire to transfer to a four-year institution and to show others they can do it. Nick, who plans to transfer, seems to consider his present experience as a kind of trial run: "I just wanted to take this year to get a feel for everything and see what was involved...Get the basic college experience before I go out and get the real one." Rez, a father of a two-year old daughter and who has spent time in prison, wants to eventually transfer to Rutgers, to be closer to his sister. "I need to get my act together...I was a real small person in prison...I made up my mind and I gotta get my act together." Like so many of his peers, he wants to use the community college to better his academic situation to improve his chances of being accepted by Rutgers.

Sources of support: In addition to their peers, they found support, encouragement, and inspiration from their parents, grandparents, and siblings, as well as their own children. College classroom experiences also helped these students better understand what it is they needed to learn, the ways in which they felt comfortable learning in this content, and the contexts which they found most supportive of their learning efforts. They attributed the fostering of these affective dimensions of learning largely to the teachers' classroom practices and saw their relationship with their teachers as very important to their learning.

Discussion

For these students, the community college experience represents a chance to start over, to make up for past transgressions, to work toward something more satisfying or fulfilling. These students brought to the community college experience a sense of academic marginality that was reinforced by their early college experiences. Yet, this same context also seemed to foster among these learners a powerful sense of agency. While they recognized their limitations, they found in this context reason for hope and even confidence in their ability to realize their dreams. They began to authentically develop a sense of freedom and authority denied to them in high school. They realized they could take control over their lives, their course schedules, and their academic performance. They and they alone were responsible for getting the work done, taking tests when they were ready, for keeping their own records through portfolios. Increasingly, they began to see themselves as adults with a life that was their own. If they didn't act in its behalf, no one else would.

The conceptions of identity conveyed through these stories clearly reflect the influence of the learners' social contexts, affirming aspects of situational identity theory (Denzin, 1992). They reflect the multiple and often competing conceptions of identity suggested by this theoretical perspective. But these conceptions of identity seemed to arise less from an explicit awareness of social categories, such as race or class. Rather, these individuals became increasingly marginalized and alienated from the mainstream educational community by the ways in which they differed from this community through their academic performances. In developing a theoretical understanding of student identity derived by these learners, we cannot minimize the fact that they are mostly poor and many are persons of color. Academic performance is linked in many complex ways to race and class (Rhoads & Valadez, 1996). Students in this study, however, gave voice to a sense of marginality derived largely from their academic performances.

This study also supports a theory of human agency in identity formation. Given their alienation and marginality from mainstream education, it is remarkable that they show up at all for the community college. This act suggests the role of conscious choice in the re-working of who they are as persons. They look to this college experience, loaded with hopes and fantasies, as a kind of gateway to a new life. In its simple and straightforward imagery, Sara's dreamy description of her ambition seems to capture the spirit of so many of these students: "To buy a double-wide trailer...and be the last one in the cul de sac. Just go in and you're at the end of it. And its quiet and peaceful and you're not bothered with anybody." Reminding us of *The Wizard of Oz* Casey remarks, "I'm not in high school anymore. I can't talk back and throw a little fit or something, or get sent down to the office. This is *my* life now. There's no second chance in this." Their stories suggest the community college developmental programs can make a difference for them, can help them turn their lives around and get them back on track. How they handle and approach the conflicting identities and roles that these choices create for them also contributes to differences in their community college experience.

This study suggests that both the sources and processes of identity re-formation and re-construction within the community college experience are complex and different for different students. Further work is needed to help better understand these differences and how they manifest themselves within the student's college experience.

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Enhancing the Utility of Level 1 Evaluations:

Transitioning from "Smile Sheets" to "Significant Stuff"

(Category A: Practitioner Concerns)

The Concern

Evaluation helps answer crucial questions, which in turn, guide efforts to increase the efficiency, effectiveness and appropriateness of education and training programs. While it is essential that evaluation focus on outcomes (results) in order to *prove* effectiveness and efficiency, assessment of inputs and processes is essential to pursuing program improvements. Often, the only data available for either the "*proving*" or "*improving*" agenda of evaluation is that collected from participants at the end of a program. These data, known as "reaction or Level 1 (L-1) data" usually are gathered immediately at the conclusion of an episode of training and within the confines of the training environment. L-1 evaluation is typically concerned with subjective, impressionistic data gathered from participants, instructors, and/or observers regarding the quality, worth, effectiveness, and relevance of the training program -- its inputs, processes and outcomes. This level of evaluation is arguably the *most* widely used, *most* abused, *most* maligned, *most* under-valued, and *most* under-utilized of all evaluation efforts. This presentation will explore and demonstrate strategies that can transform the mass of L-1 data collected so diligently and predictably at the end of a program into a potent and valued source of evaluative insights.

Importance to the Field

Although reaction level data is nearly always collected, it is not uncommon for the data to be discounted, if not discarded, after only being reviewed by course instructors. The evaluation instruments themselves are disparagingly called "smile sheets". Too often, these data are collected without a valid consideration of stakeholder requirements, without proper attention to instrument construction, without a plan for quantitative and qualitative analysis, and without policies and practices that permit evaluative insights to shed light on program development requirements. This is an unfortunate state of affairs, particularly since in many situations L-1 data may be *the only* formally collected training evaluation data predictably available in the organization. However, several facts are undeniable: (1) L-1 data are the easiest, least intrusive, and most inexpensive data to collect, (2) L-1 data are collected "where the rubber meets the road" – from freshly trained persons who have just experienced a program and who likely have keen insights about its nature and utility, and (3) the practice of collecting L-1 data collection is unlikely to "go away". The time and money invested in creating, printing, administrating, completing, examining and possibly storing L-1 forms is considerable. Efforts must be made to gain a better return on the investments organizations are making in their L-1 strategies. Aside from the ROI (return on investment) rationale for improving L-1, there is a programmatic rationale for doing so, namely, (1) valuable data for program document and justification are readily available from properly conceived and managed L-1 systems and (2) important insights about nearly all program inputs and processes can be easily and cheaply captured for program improvement purposes.

Alternative Approaches to L-1 Enhancement

This presentation will explore and critique contemporary L-1 practices observed within staff development departments, colleges and universities, business and industry, and hospitals and medical schools. These illustrative L-1 practices include training programs of a few hours in duration, to multi-day conferences, to multi-month/year courses of study. Rationales and strategies for enhancing L-1 systems will include (1) item selection and construction (2) scaling, (3) clustering and aggregating (4) stratification (5) benchmarking, (6) graphical representations of data, (7) trending (8) automation, (9) customized reporting, and (10) management, analysis, and integration of quantitative and qualitative data. This practical examination will be conducted against a backdrop the theoretical frameworks noted below.

Linkage to Conference Theme: *Linking Theory and Practice*

L-1 evaluation systems will be examined through four conceptual frameworks offered by:

1. Systems theory (e.g. Brethower and Rummler, Divita)
2. Evaluation models (e.g. Kirkpartrick, CIPP, and Stake)
3. Instructional design models (e.g. ADDIE)
4. Quality improvement models (e.g. PDCA)

Organization of the Presentation

The presenter will provide an interactive PowerPoint presentation and handouts. Cases illustrating creation or enhancement of L-1 systems, strategies, and materials will be examined. Participants will critique examples of L-1 forms and practices. The presenter will demonstrate how database management systems can contribute to creating a meaningful and timely L-1 system. Participants are encouraged to (a) bring their L-1 forms and reports to the session and (b) share what they have found to be best and worst practices pertaining to L-1 evaluations.

CREATING REAL WORLD CONTEXTS IN VIRTUAL ENVIRONMENTS: A CASE OF PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING

Christina Dokter, Regina Smith, John M. Dirkx

Abstract. On-line learning environments present numerous challenges for practitioners interested in fostering learning that is active, contextual, collaborative, and experience-based. As a team of designers for a web-based graduate course in adult learning, we are exploring ways in which some of these challenges may be addressed through problem-based learning. In this paper, we address three of these challenges: a) Creating a "real-world" context in which adult participants can learn and study the content; b) Using pedagogical and curricular interventions that contribute to cognitive scaffolding processes; and c) Fostering the development of learning communities. We discuss how we are addressing these concerns using online, problem-based learning.

Over the past ten years, online distance learning has emerged from a hybrid of traditional and text-based e-mail classrooms to fully web-based on-line multi-media virtual classrooms. On-line learning has become a recognized location for adult learning (Cahoon, 1998). While researchers have demonstrated that such distanced learning is as effective as traditional forms of in-class learning, others have been less forgiving of the constraints that distanced instruction places on the students. Criticisms include the need for better student accountability, scaffolding, and motivation of students, the need for guiding students, and the lack of communication and community among the students (Bullen, 1998; Henry & Kaye, 1993; Pennell, 1996). Research on situated cognition over the last 10 years supports these criticisms. When content is learned within contexts meaningful and relevant to the learners, the learners' motivation, interest, and achievement improves dramatically (Hansman, 2001). Used selectively where and when needed, scaffolding provides support, functions as a tool, extends the range of the learner, and allows learning to be accomplished when it might not be otherwise possible (Driscoll, 2000). Learning communities provide connections and relationships critical for both contextual learning and scaffolding, as well as other important dimensions of teaching and learning (Berns & Erickson, 2001; Bruffee, 1999; Palloff & Pratt, 1999).

While these characteristics are hard enough to accomplish with face-to-face instruction, they become increasingly problematic within a virtual environment. In online learning, both the content and fellow learners themselves seem, to many virtual learners, decontextualized. Content is too often delivered through pages of print, substituting for face-to-face lecture and discussion. Learners are no longer represented by a face, voice, and movement but by lines of text on a page. Given the virtual environment that physically separates learners from each other, any sense of groupness or community seems remote. Many on-line efforts are conscious of the need to develop community, to foster interaction among learners, and to help learners find meaning in the content (Eastmond 1995, p. 46; Moore & Kearsley, 1996, p. 366; Bannon, 1989). For the most part, however, these approaches simply represent traditional classroom-based strategies adapted to a virtual environment.

The Intent of Our Study

To address these concerns, we anchored our instructional design around problem-based learning (PBL). We believe PBL and on-line learning represent an effective blend of instructional strategies and learning environments. On-line environments provide a ready access to a variety of information banks available on the web. They create a documented forum for group work, and they utilize reflective strategies. These are all attributes that are characteristic of PBL, but are often more difficult to effectively achieve within traditional, face-to-face learning environments. While problem-based learning has been used extensively for over 20 years in a variety of professional education programs (Wilkerson & Gijselaers, 1996), we are just beginning to see its potential in virtual environments. This type of group learning approach is based on Kearsley & Shneiderman's (1998) engagement theory. Engagement theory argues that learning activities a) occur in collaborative group teams, b) are project-based, and c) have an authentic focus (Kearsley & Shneiderman, p. 20). This theory supposes that students learn best when engaged in activities that "involve active cognitive processes such as creating, problem-solving, reasoning, decision-making, and evaluation." An underlying assumption in this theory is that the students are intrinsically motivated to learn due to the meaningful nature of the learning environment and activities.

PBL is a type of project-based learning, with the project being a problem. In PBL, students learn the content of a course by solving authentic problems that practitioners of the field typically face. These problems are complex, ill-structured, and open to multiple interpretations and solutions (Bridges & Hallinger, 1991; 1995). A PBL curriculum assumes that students, in small groups, develop content knowledge and skill by exploring a problem, researching it, discussing what they are finding, and developing a plausible solution to the problem. Through this process, they develop solutions or plausible answers to problems (Cordeiro & Cunningham, 2000). In such an approach, teachers rarely provide direct instruction, acting rather as a facilitator and guide for group inquiry.

Linking Research to Design

Conceptually, PBL represents the potential to address the three challenges we faced in this design: providing real-world contexts, creating scaffolding within the learning process, and fostering a sense of community and collaboration among the learners. In selecting PBL, however, we wanted to avoid mimicking traditional classroom approaches. In medical education, where PBL was popularized, students are presented with a set of patient's ailments as a case history. They then develop a diagnosis and treatment plan (Barrows, 1996). Studies of these learning environments demonstrate highly motivated students who gain practical real world skills. However, studies show that unless PBL is open-ended and process-based, rather than outcome-based, students tend to jump to solutions too quickly (Patel & Kaufman, 2001). On the other hand, a problem must be well defined and limited in scope so that students don't meander off the path (Bridges & Hallinger, 1995). The challenge to designers is to develop problems that are well defined, yet maintain a problem scope that is broad enough to allow students to explore across disciplines and topics. Moreover, while PBL lends itself well to group work, just putting students together and giving them something to do does not always naturally lead to a successful learning community (Bruffee, 1999). Groups need guidance and learners need scaffolding.

Provide a "real-world" context. The importance of connecting learning with real world contexts is well established in adult learning (Hansman, 2001). Such connections and integrations foster a deeper sense of meaning among learners and help them see how particular content relates to their own lives. A well-designed PBL curriculum allows students to explore the content of the course while learning how to solve real world problems (Bridges & Hallinger, 1995). By situating learning within real world contexts and by having students solve problems, we provide an environment in which they remain goal-oriented, motivated, and inter-dependent (Berns & Erickson, 2001). Identifying and selecting such problems around which to construct a curriculum, however, is a daunting and challenging task for PBL practitioners. To accomplish this task, in addition to our own practices, we utilized our outreach and consulting work with practitioners. Collectively, we have worked for many years with adult and postsecondary educators to help them address key curricular and pedagogical issues they confront when designing and implementing educational programs. From these experiences, and by asking practitioners to describe some of the problems they face when attempting to help adults learn, we identified a number of real problems for possible inclusion. From this list, we selected problems that represent the potential for students to broadly engage the research literature on adult learning and to develop substantive ways to address these problems.

We then modified the problems to engender as much student exploration as possible. Additionally, to avoid misunderstanding each problem will be presented with text and supplemented with video (Berge & Muilenburg, 2000). Problems are presented as case studies. Students are then asked to identify the key problems or issues inherent in the case and to identify possible hypotheses as to what might be going on in this particular case. They then develop, through their review of the literature and further discussion of the problem, project-oriented solutions that are written up in a document format. To facilitate this process, we are asking practitioners who we know have dealt with similar problems to be accessible online for consultation in the group inquiry process.

Provide a structure for cognitive scaffolding. In scaffolding, the teacher or a peer with more advanced knowledge or skill serves as a supportive tool for learners as then engage in the process of knowledge construction (Driscoll, 2000). Similar to the construction trades, from which this idea is borrowed, cognitive scaffolding helps extend the learner's range. It enables learners to accomplish tasks that would otherwise not be possible or be much more difficult. For example, an instructor might provide an overview to a body of research that highlights some of the key controversies and questions in the area, without indicating which is preferred or superior. With this information, learners are then better equipped to full enter and engage the literature and build on prior knowledge. Eventually, they provide scaffolding for each other, learning to identity these issues and questions for themselves.

Problem-based approaches stress process as well as outcomes. Substantive learning of content and skills occurs within the *process* of solving problems. Scaffolding is critical to fostering this form of learning. PBL provides for scaffolding by both instructor and students. Within our design, the instructor provides brief overviews to each of the problems, highlighting what he considers to be some of the important studies and lines of research that might bear on this particular problem. Teams are also provided an analytic framework that asks them to define the problem, develop hypotheses, gather information and data, summarize and apply information to develop alternate hypotheses, and develop plausible solutions. Through the group process, learners support and scaffold one another's learning (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2000; Rhem, 1998). Additionally, the instructor guides each step of the process by monitoring group process and providing scaffolding assistance. On-line environments provide ready access to group communication and exchanges. Instructors can easily tend to the problem-solving process by providing more assistance during the early stages of the group development process and less assistance as the groups learn to support one another's learning.

In order to foster a scaffolding process, problems are presented in increasing complexity and duration. The first problem is challenging but allows the learners to readily grasp the situation and, within a couple weeks, to move forward with their problem-based inquiry. The instructor closely monitors the student activities and guides conversation, being careful to avoid direct instruction. Studies have shown that when instructors write long, lengthy comments in the discussion rooms, students tend to treat it as the final word and subsequently do not interject any of their opinions (Berge & Muilenburg, 2000). Subsequent problems become increasingly complex, even less structured, and more involved. As a result, the teams are given longer periods of time to conduct their inquiry. As they engage in additional problems, the instructor gradually provides less scaffolding, allowing the learners to provide it for themselves as and when needed.

Foster the development of learning communities. Community can be thought of as a "dynamic whole that emerges when a group of people share common practices, are interdependent, make decisions jointly, identify themselves with something larger than the sum of their own individual relationships, and make a long-term commitment to well being" (Palloff & Pratt, 1999, pp 25-26). Learning communities have in common shared knowledge and shared knowing. That is, they use the knowledge present within the group to help foster additional learning and knowing. Many online courses fail because interaction with other students, as well as with the professor is missing (Bullen, 1998; Henry & Kaye, 1993; Pennell, 1996). This happens even if the online course has a discussion board and a chat room. Many students are not motivated enough to initiate discussion or participate in discussion.

Thus, building a learning community is of critical importance to the creation of a successful virtual classroom (Dede, 1996; Wiesenberg & Hutton, 1995). Direct interaction, when possible, aids in mitigating the isolated feelings students have when the classes are totally virtual (Dede, 1996, p. 199) and helps to foster student motivation (Eastmond 1995, p. 46). In our design, problem-based learning teams are purposefully created and a structure is provided through which the teams may interact and share knowledge with each other. Orientation to group process and to working on problem-based teams is provided before any group begins the study of a particular problem. Community is fostered through the requirements of the task, through the process by which groups hold its members accountable, and by the groups being held accountable by the instructor. The problems cannot be addressed without whole group involvement and knowledge cannot be shared without inter-team interaction. After every problem-solving session, the groups debrief on their progress by answering a few questions about their group learning process. In so doing, we aim to foster a kind of metacognitive learning, in which students reflect on their roles in the group learn how to work better in groups.

Conclusion

To be effective, designers of online courses need to create environments that foster real-life contexts for learning, scaffolding between instructors and students and among students themselves, and a learning community that provides for shared knowledge and shared knowing. Such strategies are regarded as effective means for motivating adult learning. Problem based learning is ideally suited to help us address these issues in online environments. However, even with innovative instructional design, care must be taken to craft instruction that promotes student learning. We have more to learn about proper approaches to scaffolding, facilitating and designing a problem-based online course. More case studies are needed of practitioners describing and reflecting on their approach to designing and implementing on-line instruction in nonmedical contexts.

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DEVELOPING AND IMPLEMENTING A STATEWIDE FAMILY LITERACY EVALUATION SYSTEM

Michelle Glowacki-Dudka, Ph.D. and Gwendolyn Coe, Ph.D.

Introduction

Adult education takes on many faces throughout society and its multiple approaches to meeting educational needs of its citizens. One such approach is a relatively new federally funded program called Even Start Family Literacy. Family literacy programs look broadly at the family unit by providing adult basic education or English as a second language courses to adults, early childhood education for children up to age 8, parenting education, and parent and child together (PACT) time.

Family literacy programs are established in a local community (often low-income geographic areas) and are expected to collaborate with existing services to weave together a program that would serve "those families most in need". (*Family* = "at least one adult with at least one child under the age of eight". *Most in need* = "a family must have at least one adult who has an identified literacy need") (Section 1201 [20 U.S. C..6361]). While some components of family literacy may exist in the community, Even Start is the federal funding source that helps to add the missing components and coordinate the services to make the program cohesive.

According to federal legislation, the overall goal of the Even Start Family Literacy Program is "to help break the cycle of illiteracy and poverty by improving the educational opportunities of the Nation's low-income families by integrating early childhood education, adult literacy or adult basic education, and parenting education into a unified family literacy program (Section 1201 [20 U.S. C.,6361]). The federally-funded Even Start Family Literacy Program began in 1988 as a "demonstration" project and is administered through state educational agencies.

Since Even Start is neither an entitlement nor a compensatory education program, it requires evaluation data to inform re-authorization decisions and program improvement decisions. Three national evaluation systems (NEIS, ESIS, and ESPIRS) have attempted to capture diverse and complex "family" outcomes since 1989 within 76 projects and up through 2000 within 850 projects. The increased appropriation of funds (from $150 million to $250 million) for this program has sparked an anticipated 60% increase in the number of projects in 2001. This increase has caused federal project managers and policy makers to re-examine the design of the national evaluation system.

Prior to year 2000, state agency involvement and responsibility for program evaluation of effectiveness was non-existent. Yet, the legislation requires an annual local evaluation at the local project level to be conducted by an independent evaluator. The intent of the local evaluation has been to inform project managers and community collaborators to encourage program improvement and sustainability. Through the lessons learned over the past 12 years of national and local evaluation data collection, there has been a shifting of responsibility for demographic and outcome data from the federal to the state level.

"Family" as a Dynamic System

Family literacy also is a new way of looking at education. The trends in public schools are beginning to focus on family, community, and school partnerships, not simply the isolated needs of children. Even Start perceives the family as the learning unit and works to meet the educational needs of the adults and the children. Programming is intended to build the bridges between early childhood education, adult basic education, and parenting education to help the family learn together and support the fundamentals of learning in a social context. As Bardhill and Saunders (1988. p.319) pointed out, "Families are not isolated wholes (closed systems), but exist in a particular social context, which interactively influences and is influenced by their functioning (i.e. they are open)".

Some research in the field of family literacy supports *straight forward transfer effects* (i.e. parental literacy skills and behaviors are transmitted directly to children through activities like picture book reading and writing shopping lists) Another view of parental impact defines literacy as *social practice*, thus emphasizing the parent's role in generating a set of literate practices in which children can participate. Literacy is seen as a reaction to certain social needs. Accordingly, it is the parent's role to model literacy as a means of solving problems and to establish literacy practices that children can participate in as important parts of their daily lives. (Snow & Tabor, 1996, p. 76).

Through family literacy, it is expected that the educational levels of both parents and children increase more than in isolated programs, parents read more with their children, and learners are more successful in meeting their goals (employment, educational, economic, parenting) than in other programs. Yet without formal quantitative statewide data, the personal stories and national data are difficult to articulate to other stakeholders and funding sources.

Diverse Goals: Diverse Curriculum: Diverse Assessment

Evaluating Even Start Family Literacy programs is a challenging task since the programs are very diverse in order to meet the needs of the participants and the local communities where they are established.

Participant Goals at Entry

Even Start participants come to family literacy programs for a variety of reasons and with multiple goals (both short and long term). Some adults enroll in order to get their GED, some to complete their high school diploma, some to learn English, some to improve job skills, some to get a better job or job promotion, and some to be a better provider for their children. To show a realistic picture of the participants goals, any assessment should reflect the reason that they are involved in the program.

Adult Basic Education

In 1998-99, 85% of adults in Even Start programs had neither completed high school nor earned a GED at the time they enrolled in Even Start. The range of entry level skills among adults in family literacy is incredibly broad--- from no reading ability to eleventh grade equivalent reading and math scores. This range may be equally as broad within one individual (i.e. 11th grade reading ability and 2nd grade math skills) While many characteristics of Even Start participants have remained consistent since the program's inception, some changes have taken place. One notable change is that the percentage of teen parents in Even Start has doubled during the past five years, from 9 % in 1994-1995 to 17% in 1998-99 (St. Pierre and Kumagawa, 2001, p. 7). In order to show gains in adult basic education, some pre and post testing system should be used to measure what the skill levels are when they enter and then annually as they progress.

Families with Limited English Proficiency (LEP)

A second important change has occurred in the racial or ethnic mix of families served by Even Start. The proportion of Hispanic families in Even Start has doubled during the 1990's from 22% to 41%. This rate far surpasses the increase of Hispanics in the national population which went from 10% to 11% during the same time period. Caucasian families represent 30%, African American families 20%, and Asian families 3%. The percentage of American Indian families has remained between 2 and 4 % since 1992. (St. Pierre and Kumagawa, 2001, p. 7). Time expectations for achievements are as varied as the students themselves. Research in bilingual education suggests that it may take 5-7 years for a recent immigrant to become fluent in the English language (Grabe, 1991, p. 380). It is common that educational programs measure and expect higher levels of achievement within one year of program involvement than is possible for many participants.

Assessments that are appropriate and standardized for all of the above populations and their varied goals are difficult to find. Instruction is primarily individualized and built on interesting and meaningful activities. This kind of learning experience require authentic assessment strategies which are often difficult to standardize and quantify.

Children and the wide range of ages served

Assessing the children in Even Start family literacy programs poses a different set of questions and issues. Family literacy programs can serve children from birth through age eight. In most communities, the Even Start services are both site-based and home-based. In some communities, other agencies deliver some or all of the early childhood education services (i.e. Head Start or Parents as Teachers).

Appropriate assessment in early childhood education focuses on observation as the best strategy; however, observation is difficult to standardize and quantify. Also, collecting data from a variety of agencies raises issues of confidentially and a program's ability to insure that the assessments are fair, accurate and free of cultural bias. All of these issues must be considered and addressed when developing a consistent evaluation plan.

Parenting Beliefs and Cultural Norms

What ties the adults to the children in family literacy is the parenting education component and PACT time (parents and children together). A mantra for family literacy is that the parent is the child's first and primary teacher, thus the parenting skills and the educational level of the adult is key to the future success of the child.

This is a key component that makes family literacy from other adult education programs and early childhood education programs. In the early years of the program, the parenting curriculum focused on teaching parents "appropriate" guidance techniques and skills to ameliorate problem behaviors. In recent years, the focus of the parenting education component has shifted to parenting education specifically dealing with literacy behaviors and parental support of the child's school. Yet, whenever parenting is proposed as a curriculum, it is wrought with assumptions that may or may not be culturally appropriate to the individuals in the program.

The field of adult education requires that we acknowledge and value the experiences of the adult. Therefore, within the parenting courses, in most cases the curriculum is driven by the interests and issues of the parents. Yet, this poses another problem when it comes to assessment of what are measurable gains in parenting skills. It is difficult to find a parenting assessment tool that is specific to young children and one that deals with parental beliefs without cultural bias. The assessment tools need to recognize the different backgrounds and cultures of the participants, so that it does not stifle the curriculum.

Community Collaborations

Effectiveness of programs can be measured by the performance outcomes of participants. But, just as the "family is a system," so the "community is a system". When multiple agencies are delivering services to one family the issues of data collection and evaluation of services become more complex. Family literacy programs encourage multiple agencies to collaborate in order to serve a family as a unit instead of serving them in adult-only and child-only programs. These collaborations often take the form of co-located services, coordinating calendars of activities, sharing of transportation, and sharing of staff. The stronger and more flexible the community collaborations, the better the outcomes for families as they attempt to access multiple resources and participate in community resources.

Yet measuring the impact of effective collaboration is very elusive. Prior to this year, the emphasis on Even Start family literacy programs has been program quality, partnerships, and offerings. As the requirements for performance assessment increase, the balance will shift to include performance outcomes as well as the number of collaborators and how well they work together.

Articulating "Family" Needs and Outcomes

As an emerging field in education, family literacy has not clearly identified "family outcomes" that are accepted at either a state or national level. Depending on the collaborating partners in a given local community, the expected outcomes may include any or all of the following: getting a job, adult educational attainment, family economic self-sufficiency, or the reading achievement level for third graders.

Addressing Practitioner Concerns

As more educational programs are required to develop and use data about performance outcomes to keep their funding, it is essential that students of and professionals in adult education and educational leadership understand the value of evaluation and how to collect the required data while being considerate of the data burden already in place.

Because of the complexity of delivering a program of integrated components to families who are most in need, coordinators and staff are often unable to attend appropriately to the needs of the assessment and complete the evaluation procedures that are necessary for documenting the effectiveness of the program. Through working with programs in Wisconsin and other states, we recognize that a participatory approach to program evaluation is more likely than a traditional (top-down) approach to elicit program improvement and participant gains.

Evaluators and developers of evaluation systems and processes should include program staff in the initial design decisions and instrument selections Staff need to understand how the evaluation system complements and informs the curriculum framework. The assessments should be used not only for demonstrating accountability and effectiveness but also for informing instructional practices.

Responding to Multiple Stakeholders

Knowing the questions is often more important that knowing the answers. It is critical to identify the questions that all stakeholders can agree on early in the process of the evaluation design. If the stakeholders can understand how all of the pieces fit together to benefit them, they will be more willing to spend time to be complete and accurate with the details.

Developing Public Policy

Public policy is shaped to meet identified societal needs through awareness and understanding of the population being served. Being able to articulate the needs of the low-literate, most in need families is an important first step to the development of a policy agenda. The agenda may require new resources or may allow for the shifting of existing resources. These resources may be at the state, federal, or local level and so the awareness of the needs for this population and proposed solutions to the needs must be communicated strongly through both stories and quantitative data.

Many requirements for assessment appear when trying to answer questions for policy makers about the needs and programs. These questions create the demand for clear accurate data that can only be gathered through assessment. Consequently, reauthorization of the Even Start Family Literacy legislation and attention at the state level brings with it new mandates for data collection.

Implications for Practice Piloting a Statewide Family Literacy Evaluation System in Wisconsin

The new family literacy legislation requires that all states develop and implement a system of Statewide Indicators of Program Quality for family literacy programs with the input and support of a consortium of agencies from the state and local levels. The legislation requires that these Indicators include benchmarks for participant (adult and child) performance as well as for program quality. In Wisconsin, the process of development began in 1999 with the local Even Start coordinators and evaluators, and state-level agency. Even though Wisconsin had only 17 programs at the time of initial development, consensus about benchmarks was challenging since each program is unique.

Each of the points and recommendations mentioned above have been considered in developing Wisconsin's system of performance indicators. Wisconsin even chose to go beyond the legislatively-mandated Child and Adult Indicators. Local program coordinators believed so strongly in the family systems model and the need for family outcomes that it was decided to measure family literacy behaviors in the home and parental support of school as identified within the 10 subscales of the *Familia Inventory* (a proprietary instrument on family structures that has been tested for validity and reliability and normed for multiple populations).

In 2000-2001, Wisconsin piloted the Indicators through paper forms asking each program to aggregate at their sites. This year (2001-2002), each program is asked to use an Access database specific for data collection on each participant. This collection system will gather information consistently from each site and will be able to define and aggregate data for local programs and on the state level. Each program has access to their own data and can request reports as well as the state level decision makers will have access to see how the programs are doing overall. Although no data system will be 100 % accurate, this system is as user friendly as possible and truly considers the data burden so that questions are asked that are useful for local evaluation and improvement as well as state level reporting.

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Walking Like a Duck, Talking Like a Duck: From Dissertation to Practical Research

Tom Heaney

In the following, I examine rituals and protocols surrounding a doctoral dissertation to determine whether the resulting research is likely to contribute in any significant way to the practice of adult education. I argue that most dissertations are a tedious exercise, the primary purpose of which is to demonstrate the prowess of the researcher and only secondarily to contribute in any significant way to practice. Ironically, our field of practice has much to tell us about the production of knowledge—lessons which are too frequently ignored in graduate programs. The difficulty stems, in part, from the positivistic heritage that has dominated most academic research. While positivism is commonly challenged, its structural rigor remains. Finally, I propose some alternative models of doctoral research, grounded in the practice and commitments of adult education.

It is a lonely way
Across the desert
Called a Dissertation,
Between the small, green places of hope
Are vast, vast stretches
Where the way looks endless
And, worse, dull.

Aimee Horton, "View from the Desert"

Ecological Wasteland: *The Issue*

Dissertation, the last academic hurdle in the quest for a doctoral degree, has been the undoing of many and brought recognition to few. Seldom has a dissertation in adult education been publishable without major redactions. Its substance, if of significance to the field at all, is usually more suitable for an article or two in a professional journal. The highly structured and formulaic model of doctoral research imposed by most universities does not parallel widely circulated literature most influencing our practice—for example, works by Lindeman (1961; 1987), Knowles (1980), Freire (1970; 1998; 1997), Belenky (1986), hooks (1994), or Brookfield (1986; 1995). These authors, having produced significant landmarks in the production of useful knowledge that challenge our practice, in most instances would not find acceptance for their work in the narrow framework of a doctoral dissertation. Why is such a framework for inquiry imposed on aspiring "doctors" as the ultimate demonstration of their scholarship and contribution to adult education discourse? Doctoral research is commonly understood to be a demonstration of scholarship through sustained inquiry. A candidate is injected into the community of scholars, initiating a new thread of conversation in an ongoing area of discourse in the field. A dissertation is a demonstration project, but too often demonstrating lifeless tedium, albeit extraordinary discipline.

Finding Water: *Importance to Practice*

Research at its best combines all the rigorous, sustained, systematic, and critical processes by which new *and useful* knowledge is produced. To paraphrase Marx, the purpose of research is not to understand the world, but to change it. To be useful, research must engage readers, envelop readers in new understandings of themselves and their experiences. The rigidity which dissertation research imposes, can result in a preoccupation with form over substance and background the passion and commitments of scholarship that are likely to challenge and inspire practice.

The dissertation is generally the last trial in a doctoral program, endured after all coursework has been completed, after the comprehensive examinations have been passed. While the aspiring research scholar has had companions on the journey thus far—classmates and an array of hopefully supportive faculty—, now the journey is undertaken alone. Like an aborigine youth on his "walkabout" in the Australian Outback, the researcher is now expected to demonstrate endurance, fortitude, and creativity as a solo practitioner in the competitive world of academic research. The dissertation *as test* induces researchers to be safe, avoid risks, and remain unassailable by their committee members. This lonely journey discourages the exposure of commitment or great vision. Without great vision, unfortunately, there is little engagement. Without engagement there is little likelihood that practice will be challenged or changed.

Doctoral research is a serious, sustained, and thoughtful engagement by students with particular themes, ideas, or projects they wish to study in depth. But unless their research is infused with a critical sense of self, their commitments, and their vision of both self and the world they seek to build through their inquiries, their research is likely to be merely an exercise. In fact, many aspiring doctoral candidates fear that self, commitment, and vision will "bias" their research, and so they affect a neutral stance, assume the posture of observer before an empirically "given" world, and seek to understand that world without commitment. The discourse they engender is without passion. Their words are not spoken to the world, but to an academic elite whose approval they seek and whose ranks they hope to join.

Oasis: *Alternatives*

I do not seek to diminish the sustained, rigorous, and systematic inquiry that is the hallmark of quality in doctoral research. Rather, I argue for a higher standard—a standard of scholarship *with commitment*. I propose a reexamination of the rituals and protocols of dissertation to determine the extent to which these promote and nurture practice. I will consider three of the formal protocols of dissertation below and give examples of alternatives from the way dissertation has been implemented at National-Louis University.

The First Four Chapters. Dissertation is traditionally divided into five chapters: introduction, literature review, methodology, findings, and conclusions. The issues to which this five-chapter formula is addressed are important. The introduction provides the reader with an orientation to what the research is all about. Since research is always conducted in the midst of topics being discussed in the field, it is important for the researcher to review the relevant literature, thus situating her dissertation in the context of ongoing discourse. All inquiry is methodical and attention must be given to how the research was conducted. Of course, the researcher needs to inform the reader concerning what was discovered in the research and elaborate on the conclusions of the inquiry.

Seldom, however, does published literature in the field of adult education (or in any other field, for that matter) follow this formulaic protocol. The five elements identified above, while important, need not be reduced to chapters, but can rather be imbedded in narrative, and usually are when the intended audience for the research is anyone other than an academic dissertation committee. Is the purpose of research to demonstrate academic acumen, or is it to guide and improve practice? Underlying this question is the broader question: in whose interest is this research undertaken? This question is frequently addressed in a dissertation's introduction, but frequently the subsequent structure of the work belies the author's intentions. If those who are intended to take action, revise their practice, or change the conditions of life for themselves or others, are unable to read the author's research or find the text arcane or inaccessible, then whose interest does the research serve?

A few dissertations are eventually rewritten for publication. Are we to assume that in published form they are less erudite, less scholarly, no longer demonstrating excellence in research? On the contrary, such excellence can be equally evident in a series of articles prepared for publication, a media production—film, CD-ROM, web site—or a journalistic narrative which describes and critically evaluates significant actions taken—development of a community learning center, organization of a broad-based network of educators working for social change, or creation of a learning organization.

At National-Louis University the dissertation has been recast as a Critical Engagement Project. The researcher is expected to be *engaged*, not only in inquiry, but also in the world which the inquiry is expected to benefit. In other words, the researcher is expected to identify the *difference* she intends to make in world conditions through her own practice, which thereafter becomes a model for the practice of others. This commitment to transforming practice is the defining characteristic of a Critical Engagement Project (CEP). The CEP differs from a dissertation primarily in that the former demands engagement, whereas the later does not. The CEP demands more, not less—scholarship with commitment.

If the quality of research is determined not solely by its internal consistency with research protocols, but also by its relevance to practice and ultimately by its contribution to the transformation of social conditions, then the process by which that research is produced is radically altered. Such socially relevant research is guided by three questions that would be inadmissible in a positivist framework: Who am I? What are the values underlying my practice? What kind of a world am I intending to effect through my practice?

These questions ground research in an action agenda that can strain the boundaries of the formulaic five chapters. Yes, a research scholar still needs to ground inquiry in the discourse of the field, hence undertake a literature review. In all research, the scholar must lay a foundation, let others know what kind of research she has undertaken, how she went about it, and who else has spoken about her topic. Two of the five chapters are useful in most inquiries and are absolutely essential in doctoral research. The first is a critical review of relevant literature and the second is a clear statement of research methods used in conducting the study. However, there is no reason for these components to appear as chapters in the final product of the inquiry, as they would in a traditional dissertation, not if their formal presentation as chapters would diminish the impact of the work as a call to action.

At NLU, the Critical Engagement Project overlaps coursework in ways that support the creation of a literature review and a statement of methodology. Each of these elements is the subject of courses in which major papers are produced. These papers would be chapters in a traditional dissertation. They might be included in the CEP, or more likely the substance of these papers will be woven throughout a book being prepared for publication or some other text. In some cases it might remain a separate document, guiding and supporting the ongoing research.

By separating criteria for academic excellence from the written form of the dissertation (CEP), the researcher is encouraged to produce useful research that can be widely and appropriately disseminated.

The Final Chapter. The final chapter of most dissertations include recommendations for further study, and occasionally for action. The latter are seldom compelling, unless the researcher has made clear how her own practice has been transformed through the unanticipated discoveries of her research. In the traditional hypothesis-driven positivist paradigm, the impression is inevitably created that the researcher knew the outcome all along, nothing new under the sun. The purpose of such research is functionalist—understanding how things are or perhaps why they are the way they are, but not attempting to understand how they can be changed, transformed, or reformed. Most research is about understanding, gaining information, constructing meaning. Socially useful research is about more than that. It is about understanding and meaning-making *in order to do something differently*. That is the bridge between research and practice. If the conclusion of a research study is that further research is needed, then judgment has to be withheld on the social value of that research.

The conclusion of a CEP is a narrative of discovery and transformation which is both conceptual and historical. It is conceptual in that it charts the emergence of ideas and insights which inform practice. It is historical in that it documents the time and space in which the practice of the researcher has been changed. Recommendations are reflected first in the practice of the researcher. They are the future course of action to which the researcher is committed and only secondarily a prescription for others to emulate.

Collaboration. Because the dissertation is used as a test of the breath of an individual's knowledge and the rigor and systematic nature of an individual's skills as researcher, each research scholar is required to work alone. The problem is, of course, that the researcher is never alone when engaged in social research. As Rowan and Reason have noted (1981), "A true human inquiry needs to be based firmly in the experience of those it purports to understand, to involve a collaboration between 'researcher' and 'subjects' so that they may work together as co-researchers." To engage in sustained inquiry is to find partners in discourse. In a traditional dissertation, the individual's demonstration of skill as a researcher is a deceit—an illusion created by denying the contributions of others.

Because traditional doctoral programs use dissertations to assess the scholarship of *individual* candidates, solitary authorship is imposed in order to be certain that the work is the author's own. In fact, the contributions of multiple authors can also be documented and evaluated. The rationale for permitting and even encouraging doctoral collaboration is to explicitly acknowledge that all social research is indebted to and dependant upon the work of others—the participants in the study, others who have spoken before, those with whom the authors agree and those who have argued against them. Social research is a social act and collaborative research underscores this reality.

Collaboration is the quintessential heuristic in all critically engaged research. Engaged research, such as the CEP requires, demands that the researcher find common cause with others—identify not only her own commitments, but also those mutually supportive commitments which permeate the field of practice within which her inquiry is conducted. Increasingly books and journal articles have multiple authors. The acceptability of such research is unquestioned and, in fact, frequently represents a synergistic contribution to discourse in the field that no single author could have made.

At National-Louis University this collaboration can take one of three forms. The first is a *fully collaborative project* in which a group of two or more students undertake a single inquiry. Each collaborator accepts responsibility for the whole. The second form of collaboration is called a *linked project* in which two or more students work on related parts of a project—like writing separate chapters in a book—, nonetheless assuming collective editing responsibilities. The final form of collaboration encompasses all Critical Engagement Projects that are not "fully collaborative" or "linked;" it is called a *mutually supportive project*. Unlike the "dessert called a dissertation" experienced by many students in the final years of their doctoral work, the NLU program fosters mutual peer support at all stages of the doctoral research. Students regularly review one another's drafts and discuss problematic aspects of their studies, raise critical questions, and provide encouragement when enthusiasm wanes.

The traditional dissertation committee, which frequently functions as judge and jury, is replaced in the CEP by a team chaired by the student herself and comprises peers as well as faculty. While faculty members on the team are responsible for determining when or whether a CEP is acceptable in terms of the requirements for graduation, the overall role of CEP team members is the role of collaborators whose support and enthusiasm helps the researcher maintain the momentum and rhythm of her project.

Rituals of Conclusion. Traditionally, the final ritual marking the completion of a dissertation is called "the defense." It is often an event marked with uncertainty and anxiety. The defense recreates the competitive and contested arena of academic discourse. It bears little resemblance to the world of practice in which the norms of practicality and applicability overshadow questions about the adequacy of conceptual or theoretical frameworks. It is not that questions of conceptual or theoretical framework are unimportant; it is just that they are not the defining questions in relation to socially relevant research.

It is assumed that a CEP should have (and be able to demonstrate) relevance to the community of practice. For that reason, as a ritual of completion each doctoral candidate plans a forum within which she can announce her work and engage with other in discourse concerning its worth and implications for practice. Such a forum might be a kind of "press confrence" in the locale where the study was conducted or might be a workshop with community members to plan strategies for following up on the work begun in the CEP. Whatever shape this forum takes, it involves collaborators, but expands participation to others with similar interests. The researcher's posture in this forum is not "defensive." The researcher presents herself as a partner in dialogue—a teacher who has much to learn, as well as a learner who has much to teach.

Because the product of this research is more likely to resemble a book or has taken shape in some other medium, dissemination of the work is also a ritual of completion. Researchers are not limited to print media. There are electronic journals and web sites. The aim of the CEP is to broaden the ambiance of the researchers voice and strengthen her influence within her chosen community of practice.

Reclaiming the Desert: *Linking Theory and Practice*

Our experience at NLU over the past five years has indicated that these variants to dissertation ritual and protocol enhance the likelihood that research will be directed to and influence practice. First, we have established standards of excellence that meet the criteria for traditional research, but also require researchers to engage with their own practice as the primary context of their research. In addition we have distinguished between the requirements of sound research and the form of the product which disseminates that research. And finally we have encouraged social research in a social context, that is, collaborative research.

The conclusion of such research will not be found in recommendations for others to follow, so much as in descriptions of the ways in which the researcher's own practice is changed by the research. The transformed practice of the researcher, rather than mere recommendations, serves as a model for others.

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THE STUDY TO ASSESS THE NEEDS OF INTERNATIONAL ADULT STUDENTS

CHUNG-EUN JOO

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to investigate the concerns and problems of international, adult students attending Michigan State University. Differences among students were examined by age, gender, cultural group, marital status, source of financial support, and major field of study.

The major findings of the study were: (1) international adult students reported the most difficulties in the area of English language, financial aid, and placement; (2) students reported moderate problems in the academic records, health services, living/dining, and social/personal; (3) Students reported minor problems in the areas of admission and selection, orientation, and religious services. The results indicated that: (1) female international graduate students reported more problems than male students; (2) Asian students have more problems in five of eleven problem areas; (3) the students supported by both personal and MSU assistantship or scholarship experienced no more problems than any other groups in all problem areas; (4) the age group of more than 44 years old experienced more problems than other two age groups in the areas of academic records and English language; (5) the respondents studying Communication experienced more problems than respondents in any other field of study in seven of eleven problem areas.

I. Introduction

International students face unique problems with their successful adjustment. Students studying in a foreign country have to deal with not only academic challenges but also with culture shock (Domchot, 1989). Klineberg & Hull (1979) pointed out that students, who come to American colleges and universities with a cultural background quite different from the culture they encounter upon arrival in the U.S., would suffer "culture shock." The greater the differences between the student's native culture and the American culture, the more difficult the adjustment will be. Lehrfield (1975) found that culture shock influences academic performance and that a significant correlation exists between familiarity with the new environment and a positive change in grade point average for foreign students.

Many studies have showed that universities neglected to establish and provide policies and service programs based on the needs of international students (Pfau, 1983; Melony, 1986; Barakat, 1988). As a result, these students continuously confront new and difficult challenges and experience a high level of stress and distress in their learning and living environments.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the concerns and difficulties of international adult students, especially graduate students, attending Michigan State University in the spring semester of 2001. This study can serve as a basis for the student service personnel to develop their strategies to improve those services. In particular, this study helps the OISS (Office for International Students and Scholars) organize and implement its orientation programs.

counseling programs, cross-cultural programs, and other related student support services for international adult students.

The questions this study seeks to answer are`the following:

1. What are the perceived needs of international adult students attending Michigan State University?
2. How do these needs vary by cultural groups?
3. How do these needs vary by demographic variables (age, gender, marital status, source of financial support, major field of study?
4. What are the strategies to improve the existing service programs to support international adult, students?

II. Design and Methodology

This study is designed to identify the problems of international adult students.
This study investigated the differences among international adult students who come from three cultural groups (Asia, Europe, and Latin America) in their problems. These groups represent groups of people from countries with similar geographical, religious, and cultural backgrounds. The comparison revealed specific issues or concerns particular to a cultural group that would otherwise be overlooked in a general sampling of students. Also, the study examined the differences between international adult students by demographic variables in their problems. These variables were age, gender, marital status, source of financial support, major field of study. Theoretically, students' needs would vary due to their heterogeneous socio-cultural experiences and current social situations (Lee, 1981). Furthermore, the study found possible strategies to improve the existing support services.

Population and Sample

The target population of this study consisted of roughly 1,500 international adult students who come from three different cultural groups (Asia, Europe, and Latin America). The sample consisted of 607 students from Asia, Europe, Latin America. These students represented more than 80 counties. 222 questionnaires were completed and returned. This return accounted for 36.6% of the questionnaires mailed.

Instrument

The instrument used for collecting data was the revised MISPI (Michigan Student Problem Inventory). The MISPI was developed by John Porter (1962) to assist international students in identifying problems and concerns they experienced in adapting to a new environment.
There were basically three sections to the revised MISPI. The first was a section of biographical information. The second section contained 132 items covering eleven problem areas for international students (12items for each area) regarding student services. The last section contained one open-ended question to ask additional problems which are not specifically limited in the second section.

Data Analysis

The problem areas of respondents were analyzed to answer the research question 1. The 132 questionnaire items were grouped into eleven problem areas. For each area, the mean score was used to determine which of the eleven problem areas is of the most concern to international adult students at Michigan State University. Each problem area was scored for all the respondents and mean and standard deviation were computed. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), which answers the research questions 2&3, was used to determine where there were differences in the means of the perceived problems according to cultural backgrounds and demographic characteristics

III. Major Findings

After 667 questionnaires were sent out, 60 were returned as undeliverable. 60 students could not be located for various reasons: their names were misspelled; the wrong address was listed; they were on temporary leave of absence; or they had left the university. Thus the number of questionnaires was reduced to 607 and the final number of returns was 222 for a return rate of 36.6%. The returns from Asian students (52.7%) were highest, while returns from Latin American students (20.7%).

A. Distribution of Respondents According to Demographic Characteristics

Of those who responded to the questionnaire, approximately more than four-fifth of the respondents (88.3%) were 24-44 years of age. The smallest age group (1.8%) was 45years of age and older. Only 9.9% of the respondents were young students with age of less than 24years old. Males accounted 52.7% (117) and females 47.3% (105) of the sample. Slightly more than half (52.7%) of the respondents were male. The majority of respondents (52.7) were Asian students, while 26.6% were European students. The smallest group was Latin American students (20.7%). Approximately more than half (58.1%) was single students, while 41.4% were married. There was only 0.5% of widow students. With respect to the major field of study of respondents, Natural Science (16.7%) was the most popular area and Engineering was the second most popular area with 10.6% of the respondents. The other popular areas were Agriculture, Business, and Arts and Letters with 13.1%, 12.6%, and 10.4% of the respondents majoring respectively in each. Human Medicine was the area the less respondents (1.4%) were studying. A slightly more than one-third of the respondents (39.2%) received financial sponsorship from themselves or their family while 9.9% of respondents received scholarship from governments. The result showed that only 1.4% was supported by private companies. 49.5% received financial sponsorship both from personal fund and MSU scholarships or assistantships.

B. Problem Areas Reported by Respondents

In order to indicate which of the twelve items in each problem area were of most and least problem. The mean and standard deviation of the scores on each item were computed. The results indicate the following perceived levels of problems in the eleven sub-scales, from greatest to least problematic: English Language (mean=.28), financial aid (mean=.23), placement services (mean=.22), social-personal (mean=.18), health services (mean=.18), living-dining (mean=.13), academic records (mean=.13), orientation and services (mean=.12), admission and selection (mean=.12), student activities (mean=.10), and religious services (mean=.05).

C. Relationship Between Eleven Problem Areas and Demographic Characteristics

Eleven Problem Areas and Age

The analysis of variance tests did not indicate any significant difference in any of the eleven problem areas.

Eleven Problem Areas and Gender

The analysis of variance tests indicated that there were significant differences in the adjustment problems of female and male students in the health services, orientation, and social-personal areas.

Eleven Problem Areas and Cultural Group

The analysis of variance of the tests indicated that there were significant differences among the students from three geographical regions in two problem areas: academic records and English language.

Eleven Problem Areas and Marital Status

The analysis of variance tests revealed that there were significant differences in the adjustment problems among single, married, and widow students. .

Eleven Problem Areas and Source of Financial Support

The analysis of variance tests indicated that significant differences were found in two of eleven problem areas: placement services and religious services.

Eleven Problem Areas and Major Field of Study

The analysis of variance tests indicated that there was significant difference only in two problem areas: academic records and English language.

IV. Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the findings of the data analyses, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Foreign students encountered problems with the following problem areas (from most problematic to least problematic): English, financial aid, placement services, social-personal, health services, living/dining, academic records, orientation, admission and selection, student activities, and religious services.
2. There were significant differences in the problems of female and male students in the health services, orientation, and social-personal. In these problem areas, female students experienced significantly more problems than male students.
3. There were significant differences among single, widow, and married international graduate students in nine of eleven problem areas: academic records, admission and selection, health services, living-dining, orientation, placement services, religious services, social-personal, and student activities. The finding revealed that single international graduate students reported significantly more problems than their married partners in seven of eleven problems: admission and selection, health services, living-dining, orientation, placement services, social-personal, and student activities.
4. There were significant differences among the students from the three cultural groups in two problem areas: academic records and English language. The result showed that Asian students have more problems in five of eleven problem areas: academic records, English language, religious services, social-personal, and student activities than other cultural groups.
5. There were significant differences between problems and the source of financial support only in two of eleven problem areas: placement service and religious services. The result showed that the students who support themselves have more problems in three of eleven problem areas: admission and selection, financial aid, and placement services than other groups.
6. There were no significant differences between age and problems in any problem areas.
7. There were significant differences among the respondents from the twelve major groups only in two of eleven problem areas: academic records and English. The respondents studying Communication experienced more problems than respondents in any other field of study in seven

of eleven problem areas: academic record, English language, living-dining, orientation services, placement services, social-personal, and student activities.

The following recommendations are proposed based upon the findings of this research.

1. The international graduate students reported severe problem with English language. Implications of these findings suggest that international students with poor language and communication skills should be encouraged and motivated to participate in programs and activities that will improve their spoken English. More use of host families of the CVIP (Community Volunteers for International programs) at MSU is an example of services that could be extended to involve more students in the University community. Further, an advanced course in English as a second language should be offered to international students to help them improve their English, upgrade their communication skill, and enhance their understanding. Tutoring programs and an English Workshop could help meet reading and wirung needs of the students. Those students with restricted English language skills should be considered for research assistantships that do not require teaching duties.
2. The intenatinnal graduate students reported that their second most troublesome area was financial aid. The financial aid office, in cooperation with other university and community programs, should consider improving financial aid services for international students. Specifically, the number of loans, scholarships, assistantships, and part-time jobs should be increased so that more international students can benefit from these resources.
3. The placement office should provide special programs and services that could fulfill foreign students' basic needs for employment opportunities on and off campus and within and outside the United States. The career educator specialist employed by the university can work closely with the international student office to accomplish that task.
4. Students should be given specific information about insurance costs, options in coverage, and commensurate benefits. The university should hire a full-time insurance specialist to help foreign students with their insurance concerns. Olin Health Center, in cooperation with the international student center, should present lectures to educate foreign students about important health issues.
5. In social-personal difficulties, loneliness and alienation could be reduced by planning non-academic activities for international graduate students. For example, the host family program of CVIP is a good way for international students to learn more about the American culture, to increase friendly relationships with Americans and to improve English language skills. More conferences and workshops in cross-cultural education should be made available to foreign student advisors to help them serve the diverse needs of this unique population.
6. The current orientation program should be revised so that it reaches more foreign students, especially those arriving at various terms throughout the year. It is highly recommended that the orientation program be expanded to cover a full term, beginning whatever term the student arrives at MSU. Various existing brochures pertaining to such topics as housing, health, emergencies, transportation, and so on, should be combined into one handbook. This handbook should be issued to foreign students with their travel instructions before they leave their home countries.

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EXPLORING TRANSFER OF TRAINING ON STRUCTURED ON-THE-JOB TRAINING

Jin Hyuk Kim, Chan Lee, & Ronald L. Jacobs

Abstract

Structured on-the-job training (OJT) has been perceived as an effective training approach because of its potential to achieve transfer of training. Many researchers and practitioners in the field of adult education and human resource development (HRD) have simply presumed that since there was a close match between the training and the task, this training approach should only be used in the near transfer of training situations. This paper proposes that structured OJT can be used in both near and far transfers of training. The first part describes the transfer of training focusing on near and far transfer. The second part describes structured OJT, and then discusses the transfer of training domain of structured OJT. Finally, the last part discusses implications related to far transfer of training on structured OJT.

Introduction

Transfer of training is one of the most interesting topics in the field of adult education and HRD. Underlying the concerns about training is the fundamental organizational need to ensure that trainees will be able to use what was learned during the training back on their jobs.

While there has been a large amount of attention paid to the transfer of training in general, how the topic relates to structured OJT has received little attention. It has been shown that structured OJT applies an understanding of transfer of training principles, among other areas of training theory and research. Indeed, structured OJT program exemplifies theory-to-practice process in the adult education and HRD field, as much as any training approach. Structured OJT has been perceived as an effective training approach in part because of its potential to achieve transfer of training. Many researchers have simply presumed that since there was a close match between the training and the task, transfer of training was not a particular issue of concerns (Jacobs & Jones, 1995). However, upon closer examination, it has been assumed that structured OJT has been used to achieve near transfer of training situations only. This view of structured OJT implies that the transfer of the program has been restricted within the application of the types of tasks and in the setting prescribed by the training. An important issue that has received little attention in adult education and HRD literature is the extent that the training performed in one domain may generalize to a different or unintended context. In this regard, this paper proposes that structured OJT can be used in both near and far transfer of training situations.

This paper is composed of three parts. The first part describes the near and far transfer of trainings. The second part describes structured OJT and then discusses the transfer of training domain of structured OJT. Finally, the last part discusses implications related to far transfer of training on structured OJT.

Near and Far Transfer of Training

In general, transfer of training refers to the extent to which individuals can apply knowledge, skills, and attitudes during training to their actual job. (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Holton, Bates, Seyler & Carvalho, 1997). Transfer of training involves applying the task to contexts similar to those used in a training setting. A trainer expects the trainees to learn the new behaviors and expects them to be performed on the job. The literature suggests that the extent to which transfer of training occurs depends on several sets of variables. For instance, Baldwin and Ford (1988) proposed a framework that identified the variables in the training design (principles of learning, the sequencing of training material, and the job relevance of the training content), the trainee characteristics (ability or skill, motivation, and personality), and characteristics of the work environment (supervisory or peer support, constraints and opportunities to practice leaned material on the job).

One of the most important factors in determining the transfer of training is the relative match between the training setting and the work setting. That is, the transfer of training principle states that the greater the similarity between the two settings, the greater likelihood of the transfer of training to occur. To be true, the training setting should have the same critical features, including the physical attributes, the various work-related cues, and social settings that will be encountered in the actual work setting. Some of these features might be deduced to their simplest forms with the expectation that the training can focus on these alone, with the elimination of extraneous information. However the extent to which the match exists and the degree to which the transfer of training occurs depend in part on the nature of the work and the expected training outcomes.

According to Royer (1979), transfer of training can be categorized as near or far. Near transfer refers to the extent to which the individual applies what was learned during training to their actual situations similar to those in which they are learned. Far transfer refers to the extent to which the trainees apply the training to situations different from those in which they are trained. Near transfer involves a close match between training and task content with an emphasis on specific concepts and skills, and the training and task outcomes. In contrast, far transfer involves an approximate match between training and task content with an emphasis on general concepts and skills, and the training and task outcomes.

The characteristics of near transfer suggest that trainees should meet relatively predictable conditions of their job and apply routine knowledge and skills. For example, after employees learn the repair procedures for a Hyundai engine, they repair only that one particular Hyundai engine once they are back on the job. Far transfer, on the other hand, is akin to having trainees learn more general concepts and principles to be applied to a wider set of contexts than those necessarily presented in the training setting. For example, an employee might learn to repair a Hyundai engine, but for far transfer to occur, trainee would be able to transfer what was learned about engines during training to an array of other engines, such as Chrysler, Ford, or Honda. Far transfer suggests that by learning the fundamental aspects of something in addition to specific skills, there is a greater chance for applying that information to more than one setting in the future. Thus, a greater similarity between the training and working settings suggests a near transfer of training. A lack of similarity suggests a far transfer.

Structured OJT and Transfer of Training

In general, OJT refers to a form of training that occurs at the workplace during the performance of a job rather than at a classroom setting (Jacobs & Jones, 1995; Rothwell & Kazanas, 1994). Today, OJT is the most widely used method of delivering training for a novice employee by an experienced employee, and is also one of the most important components of learning in the workplace (Jacobs & Jones, 1995; Rothwell & Kazanas, 1990). Unfortunately, despite its frequency of use, most OJT is informal and/or unstructured in nature, and therefore has received serious criticism for its haphazard, incomplete, and overly reliant nature (Jacobs, 1990; Jacobs & Jones, 1995; Rothwell & Kazanas, 1994).

Structured OJT has a variety of different names, for example, planned OJT, formal training, and organized OJT. Structured OJT has recently emerged as a subject of interest in the HRD field. In contrast to informal or unstructured OJT, structured OJT uses a planned approach to the training (Jacobs & Jones, 1995). Structured OJT is generally referred to a planned process that is conducted by an experienced employee for the purpose of providing the knowledge and skills to perform tasks of a novice employee at or near the workplace.

As mentioned earlier, structured OJT has been perceived as an effective training approach because of its potential to enhance transfer of training. One of the benefits of structured OJT includes the increased probability of the transfer of training in comparison to classroom training (Jacobs & Jones, 1995). Since structured OJT is conducted near or at the job setting, trainees have access to equipment and tools that are typically used to perform their actual tasks. Structured OJT also enables trainees to practice the task during training because the task is similar in both training and transfer.

When there is a greater similarity between training settings and job settings, trainees can transfer what they have acquired to the job more successfully. This is why the structured OJT is relatively more possible to fill up the precondition of near transfer that requires analogy between the training setting and the job setting. For this reason, it is commonly believed that structured OJT should be used in near transfer of training situations only.

Table 1 presents how structured OJT differs by the nature of the task -- established or varying -- and a near or far type of transfer of training. The table also shows examples of these dimensions. The classifications between the near and far transfer and the established and varying tasks provide an approach to the transfer of training domain of structured OJT. The established and varying classification provides a complementary dimension to near and far transfer. While the near and far transfer is a classification about the conditions under which training and transfer tasks are performed, the established and varying task is a classification of the nature of the tasks themselves. Established tasks involve specific procedural training content and sequences. In contrast, varying tasks involve the complexity of general information in training content and sequence. The combination of a near or far type of transfer and the established or varying tasks can provide a means of characterizing transfer of tasks on structured OJT.

Table 1. Comparing Types of Tasks and Transfer of Training

	Near Transfer	**Far Transfer**
Established Task	**I.** Training focuses on units of work in which the content and sequence are procedural, to perform closely matching job tasks. • Changing engine oil in a car	**II.** Training focuses on units of work in which the content and sequence are procedural, to perform related job tasks. • Learning Netscape and apply the conceptual understanding and skills to Internet Explorer
Varying Task	**III.** Training focuses on units of work in which the content and sequence are changeable, to perform closely matching job tasks. • Determining customers' insurance needs	**IV.** Training focuses on units of work in which the content and sequence are changeable, to perform related job tasks. • Learning principles of a discussion and then apply them to the understanding of facilitating team meetings

Established tasks and near transfer of training (cell I) have characterized most structured OJT programs. In this instance, the training focuses on units of work in which the content and sequence are established, so that the trainee is expected to perform comparable job tasks. Established tasks and far transfer (cell II) focuses on units of work in which the content and sequence are established, but the trainee is expected to perform across a set of related tasks. In this instance, the training focuses more on having trainees learn reliable principles that govern relationships among variables. This combination will attract the most attention from organization managers since far transfer would seemingly reduce the amount of initial training needed.

The combination of having varying tasks and near transfer (cell III) suggests that the training focus on units of work in which the content and sequence are changeable, for the purpose of performing similar job tasks. At first glance, how to achieve such a combination might appear illogical, but it points to situations where training is provided for complex, constantly changing work situations. Finally, in considering varying tasks and far transfer (cell IV), the training focuses on units of work in which the content and sequence are changeable (e.g., performing a set of related job tasks). In this instance, the training provides the broad principles, often drawn from the underlying structure of the task. This broad base can be transferred to multiple task situations. Given these combinations, it becomes necessary to present a level of transfer that focuses more on general principles and concepts. This is followed by embedding suitable objectives and content of training to provide the level of transfer. This would extend the existing structured OJT.

Implications

This paper proposes that structured OJT can be used for both near and far transfer of training. Several issues determine whether structured OJT can actually be used for far transfer. First, to achieve far transfer, structured OJT should be considered a system such that the training inputs, training process, training outputs, and organizational context are considered. Current beliefs include that training outcomes from far transfer are less predictable, using the systems view to structured OJT would enhance the possibility for more effective training outcomes as best as it can be.

Second, a structured OJT program is viewed as an investment from which the organization can expect a return (Jacobs & Jones, 1995). When an organization needs principle-focused training to apply this to multiple job issues or when training workforce in a broader perspective, for example in a nation, is needed, structured OJT used in far transfer would be a cost-effective approach. Integrating principles into structured OJT can achieve job outcomes in near transfer and enhance the potential far transfer.

Third, De Jong (1991) and Versloot and De Jong (1994) suppose that the type of organization must be matched with an appropriate form of structured OJT. The forms of structured OJT have varying levels of formation and include on-site practice, on-site instruction, and on-site study. The authors state that in certain circumstances it can be better to have less rather than too extensive of a structure (De Jong, 1991; Versloot & De Jong, 1994). In this regard, structured OJT for far transfer could be more appropriate than structured OJT for near transfer.

Finally, in regard to the organizational context, for getting successful far transfer, trainees can be encouraged to discuss and apply the training in a context they choose. When trainees participate in the program design, the training would be expected to have a closer match between the employee's interests and the organizational needs. This approach might enable trainees to better meet current and future organizational needs.

Conclusion

Although structured OJT is now widely used as an effective training method, structured OJT has been used within a limited domain of near transfer of training situation. This paper sought to explore the transfer of training domain of structured OJT to include far transfer. Further research and experience are required to fully examine the various issues related to how to design structured OJT programs to achieve far transfer of training, especially when the task is relatively unknown.

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The Researcher as Artist: Creating Pathways for Acquisition and Expression of Knowledge

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Artistic expressions of research give voice to alternative ways of knowing, thus extending the boundaries of what we have come to know as reality. The viability, potential and benefits of various art forms in the collection and analysis of data and in the dissemination of research are explored.

How is knowledge acquired and what constitutes legitimate research? In this paper we take a critical look at these issues. Parallels between artists and researchers are drawn as we consider artistic modes of expressing research. We have chosen to present this paper in the form of a dialogue because it taps into our own creative and generative processes while serving as a vehicle for others to enter the conversation. We have grouped our comments into four major focal points: Opening up intellectual space, multiple ways of knowing, the relationship between researcher and audience, and implications for faculty and graduate student research.

Opening up Intellectual Space

R: It seems to me that what we are trying to do here is think about research in different ways, both in how data is collected and presented. When we do an interview with a research participant we are limited by what he or she can express in words. But often what people know goes beyond the cognitive, beyond language. Language can be a limitation. If we can look at what other ways people express what they know through poetry, through creating artwork, through dramatic presentation, we may be able to access knowledge that has been hidden.

C: If you ask research participants to tell us a story or create a metaphor or write a poem, they can more fully explore knowledge about something that we want to learn.

R: How many times have we heard people say, "I know what I want to say but I can't put it into words"? What we are doing, in fact, is forcing people to put ideas into words and if they can't or if they don't, what gets expressed is either partial or it is not expressed at all.

> Objects of art are visual, tactile, auditory, kinetic texts consisting of not a verbal language but a language nevertheless (VAN MANEN, 1990 P.74)

C: 15 years ago many researchers were pressing the boundaries by exploring new methodologies through qualitative research. I see utilizing art to express and access knowledge as an extension. It builds upon this stretching of the boundaries in qualitative research that adult educators are using.

R: I think it is a stretch for a lot of people to consider. Qualitative research was considered pretty radical several years ago. It was considered to be not scientific, not really legitimate knowledge. We weren't doing statistical analysis so how could we be doing real research? Yet, over the years, people have demonstrated, particularly in the field of adult education, that there are many different ways of doing research and that qualitative research was actually a way of tapping into the richness of experience that couldn't be explored with surveys, etc. What we are doing here is challenging people to expand their thinking into what the possibilities are for doing research,

C: One issue is to challenge conceptually the notion in mainstream research in adult education that interviewing and methods like focus groups and having people keep detailed journals in writing are the only ways to collect data. Those are very reasonable and acceptable ways and we are not suggesting that we disband those ways; however there are other complementary methodologies that may need to be used in tandem. We may be introducing another way of looking at triangulation of data that might incorporate artistic forms where you compare the linguistic with the metaphoric or with the meaning that comes through in poetry, drawings, etc. We want other researchers to rethink the assumption that knowledge is most accessible through the written or spoken word.

R: I think we are really asking a more basic question. What constitutes knowledge and how we know things? How far can we go in understanding knowledge using the written word as our only form of expression? We have been talking mostly about how we as researchers access knowledge from our research participants but this conversation also has to do with how we express our research findings. Most of the time, research findings are expressed through formal writing.

C: Some of the conventional exceptions to expressing research through writing would include the creation of graphic models and other kinds of visual representations that show the relationships of key themes in a study. A lot of times those are used in presentations and they are used in the text; but I think what you are suggesting is something different from creating a visual. Researchers unleash their creative and intuitive sides to interpret the data and findings and then use a creative process and find an artistic expression that depicts a knowledge base that is different from what would be described in words. We are asking researchers to not stop with the linguistic summaries of the data and conclusions but to consider the knowledge that has been created and is being created and try out artistic expressions and see what the results are in terms of expressing the meaning.

> Whether you use a story, create a film, employ a diagram, or construct a chart, what such tools have in common is the purpose of illuminating rather than obscuring the message. (Eisner, 1977 p.8)

C: A concern that I have is that if these methodologies aren't even considered, it becomes a delimitation of the research study. I want to open up and free up more intellectual space for the researcher to think about the methodologies that are indeed available before they preclude any methodology. That is an impact that I want to have.

R: I think what we are really doing is deconstructing the whole notion of research. We are taking it apart and examining it and then we are recreating it and including a knowledge base that is outside the boundaries of traditional research. It is more inclusive and allows for these different ways of knowing that may not have been considered legitimate in the past.

C: There are multitudes of ways of expressing our human knowledge. What political repercussions are there relative to who determines what research is legitimate? Reliance on linguistic forms might be restricting what research is conducted and published.

R: We need to open up intellectual space to make room for multiple ways of considering and conducting research.

Multiple Ways of Knowing

R: Have you ever watched a dance performance, and noticed how much gets communicated through body movement, through color, through the connection of people with each other, the music? There is a story being told yet there are no words.

C: Part of what is communicated are feelings. People access feelings really quickly.

R: There is often an emotional response. There is also a visceral response.

C: When we talk about multiple ways of knowing, that presumes that there are other ways than the ones predominantly learned from one's culture. I found myself as I have grown and developed both as a researcher and as a learner that I started to explore experiences other than through the ways that I was taught in the schools.

R: Teachers in public schools are being trained in multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1983). They are emphasizing musical intelligence, mathematical intelligence and the different talents that children bring. I think that is something that we can learn from in adult education, particularly in doing research i.e. bringing out people's natural abilities. If somebody is musically inclined, and that is how they learn and that is where their intelligence is, isn't it natural to have them use that in doing research? How can we capitalize on people's natural intelligence, natural abilities?

C: I think it is important that we honor difference and that we respect the inherent capability of individuals. We encourage them to use their varied strengths in conceiving of a research process that is connected with who they are rather than take the position that we are going to teach them the right way to do research. We are going to convert them to that way of knowing and in a sense then we devalue multiple ways of knowing. I come at it from the perspective of honoring the fullness of who the student is, who the researcher is and who the research participants are. We value who they are by listening to the ways that they express knowledge.

> The use of different media for the creation of research is a way to activate wider varieties of human intelligence. (Eisner, p.8)

R: A metaphor I can think of is communicating with somebody who is deaf. Those of us who are hearing people and don't know sign language often find it is a lot of work, takes a lot of effort to be friends with a deaf person because you have to take the extra time to really listen and understand and communicate with that person. So often we cut ourselves off from the potentially rich opportunity to get to know somebody. I see that happening a lot with research and working with students in engaging multiple ways of knowing when people express themselves in ways that are unfamiliar. Do we take the time to understand or do we insist that they have to do it our way?

C: More work is one thing. I don't think people are lazy but it does take more work, which means attention to learning themselves. They have to learn a new process and that presents a challenge.

R: It is not just learning, but the willingness to stretch ourselves in ways that don't feel comfortable because they are not familiar.

C: I think when we move into the affective domain, some people are not naturally inclined to express or comprehend their own feelings. When this dimension of themselves gets opened up as researcher, they may feel very uncomfortable. Because they are uncomfortable, they think everybody else is uncomfortable and they don't want to go there. They don't want to encourage the affective domain being opened up because their own comfort becomes challenged. I think we have the ethical responsibility to find a way to allow the research participants to share all of their knowledge and not exclude anything.

R: It is not only looking at the different ways of knowing of the research participant, it is also honoring the ways of knowing in ourselves as researchers which may involve not discounting disconnected thoughts, hunches, intuitions, even dreams. I have encountered a few researchers who use poetry to help them understand and analyze data. They take actual interview data and they create poems in order to make meaning of it and to help their audience make meaning of it.

> Intuition in this sense means the indirect perception of the deeper meanings inherent in objects, sensations and events. (Zahn 1966 p.5)

C: That is suggesting that the person is trusting his or her own internal subjective capacities and isn't that what research is all about, developing and encouraging this internal trust?
R: I think that trust is a big issue and I think that may be why we don't see a lot of research using artistic methods. Not only do we have these internal tapes that have been programmed into us about what is legitimate knowledge, we self-censor so we don't trust our own intuition, our own knowledge.

C: Being able to trust those inner resources and bring those forth is not easy in research. I think people often cut off prematurely those creative tendencies and don't allow them to flow out.

Relationship between Researcher and Audience

R: Research is not something that is passively presented to the audience as a finished product. The audience engages with the researcher in interpretation of the research so I think it is really a dialectical process. Knowledge is not constructed for the audience but with the audience.

C: This way of doing research presumes that interpretation continues beyond the researcher. It is not just the researcher who is doing the interpretation. We are expecting the audience to engage in an interpretive process. That removes the burden of the researcher from having to depict everything ahead of time, anticipate all the different meanings and articulate those. It suggests that the researcher is involved with the audience in new ways.

R: So the goal is not to represent a particular reality, as it is to provoke the audience to see things in different ways, to stimulate thinking.

C: I worked with a doctoral student who wanted to inform adult educators in higher education about the experiences and issues of Hispanic learners. She thought the best way to influence them with her research was an expression of a play. She wanted people to take actions based upon being moved affectively. She staged an actual live performance, which presented the audience with decision points related to their educational practice.

R: I think that the most effective research is research that touches something deep inside of me and I want to find out more about it. I want to challenge it, want to debate it, want to explore it further. It provokes me to take action or to engage more deeply in understanding it. These artistic forms of expression that we have been talking about I think are designed specifically to do that, to really grab people in a very provocative way. The student, who created the play, got the results of her research findings across in a way that communicated so much more than if she had written a traditional report of research.

C: The same is true in visual art. Georgia O'Keefe said if it were her job as an artist to capture reality as it was, she couldn't do that because the beauty of seeing it in its natural existence far exceeded what she could reproduce. She saw her job as an artist, to interpret her surroundings; therefore she would capture the essence and then create an entirely different kind of a painting. She thought that it was not her job to challenge the beauty of what was already there. She didn't want to try to replicate that. Similarly, I like impressionistic paintings because they allow me to enter the space of the artist, which gives me the freedom to go beyond. And I think that is what we are talking about.

> Nothing is less real than realism. Details are confusing It is only by selection, by elimination, by emphasis, that we get at the real meaning of things. (Georgia O'Keefe)

R: Much like artists, when researchers collect data they make sense of it by bringing together different pieces, different ideas from different places in helping to make meaning of it. In doing so they leave room for the audience to be involved in the interpretive process.

C: Researchers figure out and make sense and organize themes and show relationships and connections in their interpretive process. Artists put together symbols and forms for us to consider. They are wanting to break us out of a way of thinking or experiencing something by showing relationships in ways that we wouldn't necessarily expect. Likewise, much of research is designed to engage people in new ways, to break them out of former ways of thinking.

> The researcher, like the artist is a provider of images, a juxtapositor. The viewer rehanges these images in his or her mind, confronting images already there, reshaping the edges of experience. (Stake and Kerr, 1995 p.57)

Implications for Faculty and Graduate Student Research

R: If you recall the round table that we facilitated at the 2000 AERC conference, there were a lot of graduate students in the audience who talked about how their professors didn't want to accept non-written forms of expression because didn't know how to evaluate them. Because traditional forms of evaluation didn't fit, rather than looking at alternative means, they just said it wasn't acceptable.

C: One of the issues for students and professors is finding mutually agreeable ways that work can be evaluated. A research professor is evaluating at multiple levels. We are evaluating the students' wherewithal of learning research processes, so in a sense we are certifying that people know how to do research. We are also assisting in the evaluation of whether these conclusions logically follow and whether this form of expression makes sense given the findings. If we don't comprehend the conclusions, we can't be a judge of whether the research makes sense.

R: Ultimately, we are accountable and since we confer degrees upon people, we need to make sure that they know what they are supposed to know. However within that, there is a whole gray area of how that determination is made.

C: One way to think about evaluation is that the power needs to be shared. If the student is engaged as a co-partner in the evaluative process, where the student not only assists but also plays a vital role in the evaluation, that changes, really confronts the power dynamic. I think that many professors are resistant to sharing power, especially with regard to evaluating research. I believe it is time that faculty members in adult education take this issue seriously, and not only not offer resistance but be pro-active in exploring the viable ways these artistic expressions can enhance our conducting and teaching research.

R: But in order to take this seriously and encourage our students to go forward, I think we first need to deal with our own discomfort. We need to be willing to confront and challenge our own paradigms of what we see as reality; of what we feel is legitimate. How we do that is the big question.

C: Another dynamic that I have observed has to do with critical reflection of researcher and teacher of research. There seem to be some areas that are more taboo for us to critically examine in our practice. There are various assumptions about research protocol and standards and how our colleagues perceive us. If we challenge those various ways of looking at standards and rigor, there is some risk involved. I am wondering how many people are willing to actually engage in the discussion?

R: I think there is a lot of risk and it becomes a real political issue in academic circles because we are challenging what is known and acceptable. If you go against the grain of what has traditionally been done, you are going to come up against resistance. I know a few of our students have expressed concerns i.e. "If I use non-traditional means in writing a dissertation, will it be accepted? If I want to eventually be a professor at some university and they take a look at this non-conventional work that I did, will they say 'you didn't do rigorous research like everybody else, therefore we are not going to accept you for this position"?

> The ideological and personal dare in producing such work is not negligible. And to venture this gamble is a creation that involves risks which imply, in no small part, changes in power relations. (Jipson and Paley, 1997 p. 6)

C: Students do assist in helping us press the boundaries, no question about that. One of the issues that I have found and I have actually heard both when I was a graduate student and I have heard from colleagues occasionally is that "this would make a really neat study, but do that after your doctoral program."

R: You have to prove yourself, that you know how to do it.

C: That's right. In other words, I have been given my certification in the conventional methods of research of the day and now it is okay for me to explore unconventional research methods because I have already been declared competent as a researcher. So we might discourage our students, saying "first prove yourself in the conventional methodologies and then when you have been declared and you are not under my guidance, you can do research any way you want. But right now, I am accountable for what you produce and while I am accountable, you need to stay within my realm of knowledge."

R: A related question to consider is, when we teach research classes in graduate school, what gets included and what gets left out? Do we have to teach the canon and if there is any leftover time, we might look at some of these other ways of doing research?

C: Uncritically we can accept the canon that we were taught. We have to teach this canon no matter what. If we think of it that way, then it may not leave room to teach other research processes. That does call into question what gets left out and that is very scary for some professors because there are things that they don't want to leave out to make room for other research processes and that is a very real problem. What do you include and what do you leave out and who makes that decision?

> This question, what should count as research __ leads to a very deep agenda. It is also an agenda with high stakes for it pertains to matters of legitimacy, authority, and ultimately to who possesses the power to publish and promote. (Eisner, 1997 p.5)

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POST WELFARE REFORM EMPLOYMENT RETENTION AND ADVANCEMENT STRATEGIES: THE ROLE OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Larry G. Martin and Mary Alfred

ABSTRACT

This research project employed a telephone survey of 69 welfare agency staff and 41 employers of former welfare recipients to: map the terrain of problems and barriers to retention and advancement experienced by both unsubsidized participants and low income workers with family responsibilities (LIWWFRs); and chart the array and quality of services and programs provided to both populations by Wisconsin Works (W-2) agencies and employers. We found that a variety of educational and learning problems exist as *pervasive* and *targeted* barriers, and a variety of educational and learning programs are provided by both welfare agencies and employers as *Standard*, *Majority*, and *Experimental Services*. Educational and learning programs were also identified among the *Primary*, *Intermediate*, and *Secondary Services* considered to be most effective and relevant to a varying proportions of former recipients.

INTRODUCTION

In 1996, Congress passed the Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act (PRWORA), taking a major step to change the culture of welfare from a system of dependency to one of personal responsibility and self-sufficiency. However, even before PRWORA, many states were experimenting with creative welfare systems that would move recipients from the welfare rolls and into the workplace. Wisconsin was one of the first states to undertake the challenge, and in 1998, it completed its transition from Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) to Wisconsin Works (W-2). With its "work first" philosophy, W-2 was coupled with the welfare reform legislation of 1996. Both programs imposed strict time limits on recipients and required all who were capable to obtain immediate employment. The mandate was to move recipients to the workforce as quickly as possible, so as to decrease dependency on cash assistance.

As a result of these changes in the welfare policy and the positive labor market conditions during the welfare reform era, welfare caseloads have substantially decreased. According to Brauner and Loprest (1999), from March 1994, which was the peak of welfare caseloads, to September 1998, the national caseload of welfare recipients decreased by 43 percent. Wisconsin's caseload during this period, however, decreased by 87 percent, the highest in the nation. In addition, a tracking study by the Institute for Research on Poverty (IRP) found that 60 to 66 percent of former recipients in Wisconsin who left the rolls in the fourth quarter of 1995 and 1997 were employed continuously in the year after they left the rolls. Over 80 percent had some employment in at least one quarter, while only 42 percent were employed continuously over the three year period of the study, i.e., 1995-98. With its success in reducing the case load and assisting many recipients to obtain employment, Wisconsin is widely acknowledged as one of the first states to grapple with the issue of post-welfare reform, i.e., the retention and advancement issues that surround the work life of former welfare recipients.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This research project sought to map the terrain of problems and barriers to retention and advancement experienced by both unsubsidized participants and low income workers with family responsibilities, and chart the array and quality of services and programs provided to both populations by W-2 agencies and employers. The following research questions were used to guide our investigation:

1. What the demographic characteristics of: W-2 agency staff responsible for managing the cases of unsubsidized participants; and employers and the job requirements and tasks of low income workers with family responsibilities (LIWWFRs)?
2. What is the level of job turnover experienced by unsubsidized participants and LIWWFRs? What percent of unsubsidized participants and LIWWFRs were terminated for cause?
3. To what extent do barriers inhibit the employment retention and advancement efforts of unsubsidized employed participants receiving case management services? What proportion of unsubsidized employed participants are affected by these barriers to their employment retention and advancement efforts?
4. What employment retention and advancement services and programs are provided by W-2 agencies and employers?
5. With what proportion of unsubsidized participants do W-2 agency staff spend time discussing each of the available employment retention and advancement services?
6. To what extent do W-2 agency staff and employers believe that services provided are effective in promoting job retention and advancement among unsubsidized employed participants?
7. What job retention and advancement services would employers be willing to provide?

RESEARCH DESIGN

The project employed a survey design for the collection of data. Telephone surveys were administered to appropriate W-2 agency representatives and employers. A "selection with probabilities proportional to size" (Jaeger, 1984) random sampling process was used to select the 76 Wisconsin Works (W-2) agencies that had at least one unsubsidized participant the year prior to the study. The agencies were statefied into four groups: agencies with fewer than 10 cases, those with 11 to 80 cases, those with 81 to 500 cases, and those with over 500 cases. We took a 33 percent sample from each of these strata. From these agencies the sample of 69 agency staff was identified. All of the agency staff responsible for placing or retaining unsubsidized employed participants from each selected site were targeted for interviews. In instances in which this responsibility was shared by the majority of case managers in an agency, about one-third of these individuals were asked to participate in the study. A total of 98 individuals were asked to participate in the study and 69 were interviewed, for a participation rate of seventy percent. Each interview ranged from fifteen to forty minutes.

Interviewees for the employer survey were identified via the contact persons from each W-2 agency. These individuals were asked to identify three employers with whom the agency had placed participants in the past year. A total of seventy-seven employers were contacted, and 41 (i.e., Human Resources Directors, Managers, or Representatives; Staff Supervisors; and Personnel Specialists) were interviewed. Therefore the participation rate for employers was 53.25 percent. Each interview averaged about twenty minutes, but ranged from fifteen to forty minutes.

The data collection instruments were developed from several sources: existing Wisconsin Department of Workforce Development (DWD) and W-2 agency services and programs; services, programs, problems/issues and barriers identified by discussions with DWD agency personnel; a multi-state group of other state and local officials via a teleconference involving members of the Welfare Peer Assistance Network (WELPAN); and existing instruments that have been used in previous W-2 studies of FEPs and employers. Both forms were pilot tested with three agency staff and three employers before the final instruments were employed in the study. Data from all telephone interviews were entered onto blank copies of the instrument and later transferred to an SPSS-PC data file.

FINDINGS

The demographic profile of the sample suggests that the typical W-2 agency personnel responsible for sustaining participants in the workforce is an experienced, White female, with less than a B.S. degree. The sample was comprised of a broad range of small and large employers who have hired former welfare recipients and established a cooperative relationship with W-2 agencies. The typical employer in this sample employed between 100 and 249 workers (26 to 50 of these would be LIWWFRs); is located about a tenth of a mile from a transit stop; operates from multiple sites; recruits employees via news paper ads and state W-2 agencies; screens interviews via personal interviews and takes these seriously in the hiring process; does not require applicants to take tests; and hired between 11 and 100 employees during the past twelve months. These employers did not consider a high school diploma nor pervious experience a necessary condition of employment, and only mildly preferred skills training or certification. They do require employees that have the ability to exercise personal initiative, the use of judgment, and critical listening skills. They paid LIWWFRs a starting salary that ranged between $7.40 and $8.80 per hour, and they have about ten job vacancies to fill. The majority of LIWWFRs hired by these employers were White women who work for forty or more hours per week. The majority of those hired last year had some previous job experience. The majority of these employees work "fixed schedules," in non-seasonal jobs, and do not receive tips, commissions, or participate in profit sharing to supplement their salaries. However, they do receive company-sponsored health insurance. Few of them were promoted during the last two years, but most received cost of living raises the past year.

The majority of W-2 agency staff indicated that either half or more than half of their unsubsidized participants had been separated from employment in the last year. Also, nearly two-thirds of them indicated that either half or more than half of their unsubsidized cases had been terminated from employment for "cause." The employers similarly experienced high turnover among LIWWFRs, i.e., fewer than forty percent of employers retained all or more than half of their LIWWFRs after two years. Fifteen percent of those leaving these firms were terminated for cause.

Unsubsidized participants face several significant barriers to their efforts to retain employment and advance in the workforce. Our analysis of the literature and networking with several stakeholders suggested seventeen barriers significantly inhibit the efforts of such participants. The importance of barriers can be measured in the power of their inhibitory effect and in the number of participants affected.

This study identified four types of barriers that were rated by W-2 agency staff: Situational, Education and Learning, Personal Issues, and Disabilities. Situational Barriers were rated the highest in terms of effect; Education and Learning Experiences and Personal Issues were rated equally, and Disabilities received the lowest collective rating. Proportionately, Education and Learning Experience and Situational Barriers did not differ from each other and received the highest collective rating, Personal Issues were rated third and Disabilities were fourth. Employers rated the extent to which Low Income Workers With Family Responsibilities (LIWWFRs) were more likely or less likely to experience twenty-one problems and barriers. These were organized into four categories. Situational Problems, Educational and Learning Problems, and Personal Issues, received equal ratings; however, these categories were significantly higher than Disabilities.

Pervasive Barriers have both a strong inhibitory effect and they affect one-half or more of their cases. Four of the seventeen barriers were identified as both *Pervasive* by the W-2 agency staff and more likely to be experienced by LIWWFRs by employers: lack of child care, lack of transportation, poor written English skills, and poor math skills. Four barriers were rated as *Pervasive* by W-2 agency staff, but were not thought to be distinguishing features of LIWWFRs: lack of motivation to work, poor interpersonal skills, substance abuse, and learning disabilities.

Targeted Barriers have an equally strong effect; however, they affect fewer than one-half of participants. Weak verbal English Skills were rated as *Targeted* by W-2 agency staff, but were thought to be a significant distinguishing feature of LIWWFRs by employers. Seven barriers were rated as *Targeted* by W-2 agency staff, but were not thought to be distinguishing features of LIWWFRs by employers: housing instability, care for others with disabilities, crime victims, domestic abuse, criminal charges, and mental and physical disabilities. One barrier (i.e., immigrant status) was indicated as *Targeted* by the W-2 agency staff, but was not on the Employers' scale.

Four problems were on the Employers' scale but were not on the W-2 agency staffs' scale (i.e., absent/tardy, illness, apply training, and attend training sessions). The problems of absenteeism and tardiness, and frequent illnesses by LIWWFRs were thought by employers to be distinguishing characteristics for this population. On the W-2 agency staffs' scale, these concerns were captured in "lack of motivation to work." The other problems were not thought to distinguish LIWWFRs from other workers.

A total of twenty-nine possible employment retention and advancement services and programs were identified and organized into four categories: Support Services, Educational and Learning Programs, Employer Intervention, and Counseling Services. We queried both W-2 agency staff and employers regarding the availability of services in their respective organizations. *Standard Services* were provided by 90% or more of the staffs' agencies or employer. Nine *Standard Services* were identified, seven of which were Support Services. The other *Standard Services* were soft skills training and job counseling during employment. *Majority Services and Programs* were provided by fifty to eighty-nine percent of the W-2 staffs' agencies. Four of these were educational programs which were also provided by employers. Other *Majority Services* were identified which were among the Counseling Services and Employer Intervention programs and services. Up to 49 percent of employers indicated they had participated in these intervention services. *Experimental Services* were indicated by fewer than 50% of those interviewed to be offered by their agencies. Only five programs and services were rated as *Experimental Services*. Three of the five involved the provision of pay to either unsubsidized participants or to employers. The remaining services were for Counseling Services.

An analysis of the W-2 staffs' high (3.5 and above), intermediate (2.5 to 3.49) and low (below 2.49) ratings on both the "effectiveness" scale and the "proportions discussed" scale produced three categories of services and progams: *Primary*, *Intermediate*, and *Secondary*. *Primary Services* and programs were those considered by W-2 agency staff to be highly effective and were discussed with a high proportion (i.e., over half) of their unsubsidized cases. These tended to be either Support Services or Educational and Learning Programs. Of the ten *Primary Services* identified by the W-2 agency staff, three also received high ratings from employers. Child care and employment skills training programs were considered by those employers providing them to be highly effective and over half of the LIWWFRs in those employment settings participated in them. Also, transportation assistance was considered by employers to be moderately effective and it was provided to about half of LIWWFRs in most employment settings. Other *Primary Services* (as rated by the W-2 agency staff) included: Medicaid, placement services, food stamps, educational programs, soft-skills programs, job counseling before employment, and job counseling during employment.

Intermediate services and programs were considered by W-2 agency staff to be highly effective, but were discussed with a moderate proportion (i.e., about half) of their unsubsidized cases. Only one program was identified in this category: financial assistance for postsecondary education (FAPSE). However, FAPSE was also identified by employers as having a moderate level of effectiveness and being delivered to a low proportion of LIWWFRs. *Secondary Services* and programs were rated as moderately effective and they were discussed with a moderate proportion (i.e., about one-half) of the unsubsidized cases managed by W-2 agency staff and other agency personnel. These services were primarily Counseling and Support Services. W-2 agency staff and employers tended to disagree as to the effectiveness of the Employer Assistance Programs provided through the Workforce Attachment and Advancement (WAA) program. W-2 agency staff rated these services as being "quite effective" whereas employers rated them "somewhat effective."

In order to improve the ability of LIWWRFs to hold jobs in their organizations, over half of the employers expressed a willingness to consider providing two programs: employment training, and training (i.e., if technical assistance is provided).

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

An impressive array of educational services and programs are currently made available through W-2 agencies to address the barriers experienced by unsubsidized participants. More effective employer intervention programming is warranted. Given the fixed schedules of many LIWWFRs, a variety of context-based workplace literacy programs should be arranged via cooperative arrangements with individual employers, literacy program providers, and W-2 agencies. Those educational services rated as *Secondary* should be analyzed in greater depth to determine why they are considered only moderately effective. Given the level of confidence expressed by both employers and W-2 agency staff, in the effectiveness of "worksite mentoring" programs, these programs should be expanded to a much broader range of employers. The prospect of assisting employers with basic skills training should be pursued by W-2 agencies, and the prospect of developing a tax-credit program for employers should be investigated by Wisconsin policy makers.

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The Case for Involving Men in Women's Development Projects

Margaret Y. Orazen

Abstract: *Despite the current emphasis placed on gender programming by international development agencies, there is a widespread feeling that such programming has not been entirely effective in its efforts to transform gender relationships or empower women. Leading agencies and organizations in the field recognize the importance of involving men and women equally in development efforts, though, in practice, "gender programming" has simply been equated with programming that exclusively caters to women. Projects implemented by Westerners or from a Western perspective may inherently stress a model of women's empowerment that runs contrary to local culture. The Western feminist emphasis on conflictual approaches to empowerment are frequently met with resistance from both men and women in the developing world. Incorporating men into women's development projects provides an avenue for transforming gender relationships without alienating cultural norms. This paper briefly examines the history of gender issues in development, justifies the inclusion of men in gender programming at varying levels of participation, briefly outlines alternative cultural orientations and feminist perspectives and examines three projects that have effectively incorporated men into women's development projects.*

Introduction

Gender awareness and equity have been integrated in the policies of many of the major development agencies such as United States Agency for International Development (USAID), United Nations (UN) agencies, the World Bank, and Oxfam. The policies clearly state a preference in hiring candidates with knowledge and experience working with gender issues, and agencies and groups seeking funding for development projects are increasingly being required to show the gender issues are being addressed as a key outcome of programming (Chambers, 1998). Despite the need and desire to address gender issues in development plans, there lingers an uncertainty about how to translate these issues into appropriate and workable analytical tools (Rao, 1991).

A brief history of gender as a development focus

A basic knowledge of the evolution of gender as a development focus is important in understanding the strategies and problems currently being encountered. Esther Boserup's "Women's Role in Economic Development" (1970) played a crucial role in making the case that women's contributions were being ignored, causing development in general to suffer. This perspective, called Women in Development (WID), focused on more efficient and effective development by integrating women into existing development processes (Gender and Development, 1996). Among WID's shortcomings were the notion of slow, steady, linear development, a failure to question the existing structures, a largely confrontational approach, and a failure to acknowledge the diversity of women (Njiro, 1999). WID concentrated only on the productive aspects of women's lives and assumed that access to money could change gender relations at all levels (Njiro, 1999). By the late 1970's a reaction to WID, called Women and Development (WAD), emerged. The WAD advocates argued that women were already involved in development processes, though on unequal terms, and that increasing the activities of women through WID only compounded women's workload without securing increased access to resources and decision-making power (Gender and Development, 1996). The 1980's marked a significant shift in thinking about sustainable development. This newest perspective was called Gender and Development (GAD) and sought to discourage perceptions of women that were focused in terms of their biological differences rather than in terms of gender, which emphasized the socially constructed roles of men and women (Gender and Development, 1996).

GAD recognizes that development affects and is affected by both women and men. According to GAD, placing a greater focus on women due to their disadvantaged position is crucial, but so is the involvement of women and men in development processes (Gender and Development, 1996). Unfortunately, the involvement of men in many cases seems to go no further than policy statements. A review of the literature in the field of development is woefully silent about how men can be involved in the empowerment of women, and while organizations and individuals acknowledge the importance of full and equal participation of women and men in sustainable development, (Gender and Development, 1996; Porter, Smyth & Sweetman, 1999; Guijt & Shah, 1998; Chambers, 1998; Murthy, 1998) there is little available to guide practitioners.

Why should men be involved?

Although gender emerged as a development issue in the 1970's, many global organizations only began serious integration of gender issues in the 1990's. One of the most influential and widely recognized efforts in the cause of women's empowerment was the UN Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing in 1995. So what did Beijing say about the involvement of men in women's empowerment? The Beijing Declaration itself states:

"Equal right, opportunities and access to resources, equal sharing of responsibilities for the family by men and women, and a harmonious partnership between them are critical to their well-being and that of their families as well as to the consolidation of democracy."

"We are determined to encourage men to participate fully in all actions towards equality."

The Beijing Platform for Action goes on to state:

"Equality between women and men is a matter of human rights and a condition for social justice and is also necessary and fundamental prerequisite for equality, development and peace. A transformed partnership based on equality between women and men is a condition for people-centered sustainable development. A sustained and long-term commitment is essential, so that women and men can work together for themselves, for their children, and for society to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century."

"...women share common concerns that can be addressed only by working together and in partnership with men toward the common goal of gender equality around the world."
"It will be critical for the international community to demonstrate a new commitment to the future—a commitment to inspiring a new generation of women and men to work together for a more just society."

"The advancement of women and the achievement of equality between women and men are a matter of human rights and a condition for social justice and should not be seen in isolation as a women's issue. They are the only way to build a sustainable, just and developed society. Empowerment of women and equality between women and men are prerequisites for achieving political, social, economic, cultural and environmental security among all peoples."

Cultural considerations in gender programming

One of the criticisms of WID, WAD, and GAD is that none of them give much thought into the cultural orientation of women's development programming (Njiro, 1999). Since GAD recognizes the socially constructed nature of gender, then it must also recognize that relations between women and men can be vastly different in each society and culture (King, 1998).

In order for education and development to be empowering, the practical and strategic interests of women must be addressed (Mishra, 1997). The formulation of what is useful and what is of a high priority is primarily for the women themselves to decide (Green, 1998). When local interests are identified by members of foreign cultures, it is difficult to ensure that those local interests are being addressed. It can even raise questions about the extent to which interventions are based on universally valid values (Chambers, 1998). For these reasons, approaches must be designed in a context-specific manner (Green, 1998; Chambers, 1998).

Recognizing cultural differences is not a new area of exploration. In 1969 Inkeles and Levinson developed four standard analytical issues which all cultures must address (Hofstede, 1998): relationship to authority, relationship between individuals and society, the individual's concept of masculine and feminine, and ways of dealing with conflict. Hostede (1998) himself reorganized these four concepts and did extensive research into quantifying these cultural differences. His four constructs are: power distance, individualism, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance. These are tied to society's basic dilemmas of human inequality, human togetherness, gender roles, and dealing with the unknown respectively. Africa is considered a part of the world where Western concepts are often seen as unhelpful (Hofstede, 1998). Since the majority of women's development projects are funded, designed, and implemented by Westerners, it may be helpful to delve a bit further into the cultural differences between the Western and African societies.

The primary cultural mode of traditional African societies is corporate, often referred to as collectivist or communal (Mikell, 1997; Lynham, 1995). In such societies, individual are a part of many interdependent human relationships; the primary goal is to maintain harmony and well-being of the social group, emphasizing group goals over individuals (Mikell, 1997; Bhawuk, 1998). This corporate nature is common to all African societies though operating mechanisms and the roles of women may vary (Mikell, 1997). Even economic and political relationships are corporate. This life orientation is opposed to individualism (not to the point of annihilation of personal interest, but as focused on working for the common good) and insensitive to competitiveness (Lynham, 1995). It is norm driven, unlike individualists who are driven by personal attitudes, beliefs, and values (Bhawuk, 1998). The United States score of 91 out of 100 on the individualism construct of Hofstede's scheme is the highest of all cultures. This is manifested in the focus on oneself and one's individual family, the out-of-sight, out-of-mind mindset and male-female division (McFarland, 1997). The American feminist perspective may be a result of an individualistic culture as opposed to actual feelings regarding gender roles. This may in part explain the rift in addressing women's development needs through a feminist agenda. Women participants may be reticent about taking a Western-feminist "conflict" oriented approach and it may also ignite considerable resistance from men. While individualistic societies tend to calculate the value (often economic) of relationships, collectivist societies are relational and tend to maintain such relationships, even if they prove to be cost inefficient (Bhawuk, 1998). One of the sources of tension between Western development workers focused on women's projects and their African counterparts is differing concepts of feminism (Mikell, 1997). Since the 1980's African women have disagreed about the "universal" meaning and direction of the women's movement (Mikell, 1997). Whereas the Western concept of feminism focuses on individual female autonomy and separation from men, African women have insisted on gender complementarity and culturally linked forms of public participation (Mikell, 1997). African feminism lacks the elements of essentialism, focus on the female body, and radical feminism viewpoint of the West. It is largely heterosexual, prenatal, and focused on "bread, butter, culture and power" issues (Mikell, 1997, p 4). Njiro (1999) observes that "the way gender issues were introduced in Kenya and perhaps in most of Africa seemed to threaten the patriarchal status and left a trail of hostility that made the concept of women's empowerment offensive to every male who heard it." (p 32). While African women are increasingly willing to female oriented strategies for change, organize woman to woman, and use the term "feminist," they remain concerned with how to reconcile these practices with their culture (Mikell, 1997): to use African culture in assertive and positive ways to seek solutions. For African women, the struggle for women's development must be conducted by women, not in opposition to men, but as part of the social development for all people (Njiro, 1999).

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Three examples of effective practices

A careful review of the literature uncovers some dynamic and innovative ways that some practitioners have attempted to integrate men in a way that complements the empowerment agenda. The following three examples were chosen for their varying approaches and levels of men's involvement.

The Guilintico women's group consists of 40 members and has been in existence since 1984 (Barry , 2000). They have been involved in a variety of activities including micro-credit, soap-making, and establishment of a literacy center. Although the husbands initially regarded the group with suspicion, it was eventually accepted and began to be seen in a positive light. In describing the pride the men felt at the success of their wives, one man said, "If your friend has more money than you, it doesn't matter. If he is better educated than you, that doesn't matter either. But if his wife is better than yours, then your friend is surely better than you." Women were therefore encouraged to perform as well as possible and to take leadership positions in the group. The wives, who all along regarded their micro-credit project as a system for the whole community later began to give their husbands access to the credit system. One of the most significant problems faced by the women has been absent husbands who get reports from far off. This once resulted in two of the women being ordered to leave the group. Intervention by the elders resolved this situation successfully, but the women point to this as one of the most worrying problems they faced.

The Aga Khan Rural Support Programme-India was working with a women's group in Boripitha in Bharuch district in 1992 and set about trying to lighten the workload of women (Bilgi, 1998). The women's interest in obtaining time-saving devices such as flour mill, pressure cookers, etc. was met with resistance from the men. They complained that women's work was not excessive and that such devices would simply leave more time for the women to engage in gossip, loitering and other non-productive activities. It became clear that the men's resistance was too high to go forward. Staff met with the men and asked them to assist in drawing up a daily activity profile of the women's work. A long discussion and representation of daily activities and the time consumed by women's work through symbols etched on the ground yielded a total of 19 hours a day. The men, in disbelief, began trimming their estimates and retabulated the results, only to find they had only eliminated one hour. After realizing the extent of time the work entailed, men were asked to imagine what women experience as they do these activities. Through an extended discussion and sharing of stories they realized the time and difficulty of women's work. These discussions led to follow-up meetings between men and women regarding technologies, the need for separate women's groups, and the need for men to support those women's groups. This experience helped AKRSP make policy changes which integrated men and women. As a result, the men who were initially resistant are now asking for new technologies and there is overall less interference by the men in women's affairs.

The women in a village extension group in Siavonga District, Zambia, expressed deep concerns at women's group meetings about the need to seek men's cooperation (Frischmuth, 1998). They were unhappy about many husbands opposition to the group and wanted their husbands to join them and join in the learning also. They realized they couldn't hide in their groups, but needed to address these issues publicly. The analysis of women's workload stunned the men. During these discussions men regularly complained that their efforts to assist their wives are blocked by the women themselves. Men who suggested a men's group to discuss and support initiating changes in the household were mocked by women. One of the men told a story about taking his daughter to the village clinic and being laughed at publicly by the women there. Men who attempted to work in the kitchen were often the subject of ridicule and gossip initiated by the wife herself. This dialogue with the men was an important lesson for the women in realizing the ways in which they fostered the non-participation of men in health, nutrition, and childcare. The community began asking for more assistance from the extension workers and eventually established leadership workshops for women and gender-awareness workshops for couples.

Conclusion

The inclusion of men into women's development projects may facilitate the goals of gender programming more effectively than exclusively targeting women, especially when local cultural norms reject Western feminist driven approaches to women's empowerment. Though the inclusion of both genders in development work is acknowledged in theory, translating the concept into workable processes in the field has proven difficult. The lack of literature on these approaches further inhibits practitioners from engaging men in supporting women's empowerment.

The tidal wave of gender programming cannot continue uninterrupted without a continuing conversation on the need for seeking empowerment agendas that respect local cultural values and allow men and women to set their own agendas for development.

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Will be provided at the conference.

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AN EXPLORATION OF APPROACHES UTILIZED TO INTERPRET RACE, CLASS, AND GENDER IN ADULT DEVELOPMENT MODELS AND THEORY: IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT, CONTINUING, AND COMMUNITY EDUCATION

Elice E. Rogers

Abstract: The purpose of this paper is to discuss North American literature which demonstrates how race, class, and gender has been treated historically in adult development models/theories and presents two approaches that informs contemporary literature and adult, continuing, and community education.

I. Introduction

In the classroom I encourage new adult students to share those particular aspects in their life's journey that led them to pursue graduate study. Over the years students have shared many stories; however, I find the accounts of experiences as shared by Don, Sharan, Michael, and Theresa extremely interesting and complex with regard to the journeys of adults and adult development. Within each story exist unique forces, influences, and life events that have shaped how these individuals see themselves in the world. Moreover, it is the nature of these life experiences that prompted active educational involvement and participation in the formal setting.

In Don's story I note an adult's struggle to interpret and make meaning of life forces, influences, and life events. Don's impending retirement from a major manufacturing company located in his hometown led him back to the classroom. Don also says that as a white male, at age 66 he feels "out-of touch" with it all. He obtained an undergraduate degree some years ago and he has noted changes in the workplace as well as in society. Technological advances, the utilization, and reliance upon technology frightens Don, because he feels that people are not as valued in the workplace. Atlhough Don is secure financially and has been with his employer for thirty years, he is not passionate about his work. He has stayed at the manufacturing company primarily because he felt extremely fortunate to land a job with the most competitive paying employer in town and he had a family to support. Don is single, as he and his wife of many years were recently divorced and, his four kids are adults assuming responsibility for their own lives. Responsibility is no stranger to Sharan as she has had her share of difficult times. As an African American single-parent, juggling a full-time job, day-care, and two children is a formidable challenge. Returning to graduate school meant that Sharan's life would be more demanding. Sharan's quest for a graduate degree has fostered increased dependence upon her family and friends for assistance with her children, as well as generate worries about how she will handle financial costs associated with her studies. Sharan says that she has no other choice but to manage life's demands as, she can ill-afford to rely on a series of minimum-wage jobs with limited benefits to sustain her. When Sharan made a commitment to graduate work she made a commitment to herself, her family, and her future. Her major issue is survival. Time and money are Sharan's greatest obstacles as she struggles to complete her graduate degree.

Time and money are not however, Michael's primary issues. Michael is a 25 yr. old white male who holds an undergraduate degree in engineering. Financial stability has never really been an issue for Michael, as he is the youngest member of a very prominent family in his community. Michael is struggling to assert his independence from his family. As Michael fights his family for independence, he is also dealing with his own identity as a gay male. Immediately following graduation Michael landed an entry-level engineering position and discovered in two short years that engineering was not for him. Soul searching, independence, and a need to understand who he is in all aspects of life as well as his role in society, led Michael back to the classroom.

Theresa is a 48 year-old, white, happily married, mother of three teenagers who returned to the classroom because she needed something to do with her time. While writing her master's thesis, Theresa entertained the idea of doctoral studies. Theresa has indicated that her relationship with her husband, a highly successful business executive, has become rather tense and she is afraid to seriously discuss doctoral study because it might destroy her marriage. Theresa has reached a gradual recognition that she has cultivated something that she can call "her own" and she is torn, because graduate study has given her "a glimpse" of what she could become. In recalling what led Don, Sharan, Michael, and Theresa to graduate study I note a diversity of experiences that are influential in each person's life journey. In each case it is evident that change and conflict has a profound impact on adult development. We are witnessing radical transformation in society due to change. Such change is evidenced by shifts in technology, the workplace, and a renewed definition of family, and hence family roles and responsibilities (Merriam and Caffarella, 1999, P.1-23 and Hart, 1992, P. 1-28). Further, there exists increased uncertainty about the work of political institutions as well as ambiguity regarding economic and financial stability. As a result of these changes and societal shifts an increasing number of adults are experiencing critical change in their struggle to make meaning out of their circumstance (Merriam and Brockett, 1997, P. 140). As an adult educator I find that the stories of Don, Sharan, Michael, and Theresa raised critical questions: 1)How could I meet the needs of these adults where they were? and 2)How could I stimulate dialogue about ways within which to encourage and promote the development of learning communities with the specific needs of Dan, Sharan, Michael, and Theresa in mind? I turned to the literature for answers, approaches, and insights because I recognize that much of what we believe about adults as learners and leaders, with regard to how adults develop has largely been influenced by the literature on adult development (Clark and Caffarella, 1999; Knowles, 1990; Merriam and Caffarella, 1999; and Rybash, Roodin, and Santrock, 1991). Inclusive discussion and thinking warrants a recognition of difference (race, class, and gender), which means placing the experience of adults at the center of thought so that we may better understand how diverse adults as learners and leaders develop and change (Andersen and Collins, 1992 and Rogers, 2000). Any discussion of race, class, and gender in adult development models and theories warrants that hegemonic eurocentrism is a reality and this reality influences and shapes how adults should experience the world (Collins, 1991).

The purpose of this paper is to: 1) discuss how race, class, and gender has been treated historically in adult development models and theory, 2)present two approaches or perspectives that inform contemporary literature, and 3) provide implications for adult, continuing, and community education.

Educational Responses to Race, Class, and Gender in Adult Development Models and Theory

A critical review of race and gender in adult development models and theories was addressed by an analysis of the literature that directly addresses adult learning and development in North America. The competing perspectives from the literature include an examination of traditional and contemporary emerging models/theories(Merriam, 1984; Levenson and Crumpler, 1996; Caffarella and Olson, 1993; Peck, 1986; Clark and Caffarella, 1999; Gilligan, 1982; Belenky and et al., 1986; Amstutz, 1999; Johnson-Bailey and Cervero, 2000; and Goodman, 1990) regarding race, class, and gender in adult development. Traditional/classical and multicultural approaches were identified from the literature. I will examine and assess each of these approaches as well as discuss perspectives associated with each approach. Close analysis of each approach considers how race, class, and gender has been treated historically in adult development models and theory.

A)**Traditional/Classical Approach**

Sequential models/theories of adult learning and development seek to interpret how adults develop over a lifetime and how orderly changes representing specific patterns of behavior occur in a particular time span (Merriam, 1984 and Reeves, 1999). According to this approach adult progression is based upon increasing levels of separation from others (Goodman, 1990). Examples of such theories/models of adult development are evidenced by the stage/phase theories. Sequential models or stage/phase theories of adult development attempt to "delineate the common themes of adult life according to what stage or phase of life one is in (Merriam and Cafferella, 1999, P. 115)." Erikson is by far perhaps the most well known researcher who championed sequential development with his eight stages of development. Each stage involves an issue whereby a positive or negative choice must be made (Merriam and Caffarella, 1999). Lawrence Kohlberg (1981) is another known theorist. Kohlberg is known for his six stages of moral development, his ethic of justice, and for asserting that there is a direct relationship between intellectual and moral development (Merriam and Caffarella, 1999; Merriam, 1984; and Gilligan, 1986). In his six stages Kohlberg focuses upon three levels of moral development. These three levels of moral development are characterized as preconventional, conventional, and autonomous (Merriam, 1984).

Life Events and Transitions represent another perspective consistent with the Traditional/Classical Approach to Adult Learning and Development. Researchers advocating this approach to human development view development as consisting of life events and transitions. Life events are indicative of individual and cultural events, while transitions represent unexpected, expected, and non-occuring events which happen in a person's life (Merriam and Caffarella, 1999; and Merriam, 1984). Neugarten (1976) notes that each adult has a "social clock" which informs them as to whether it is time to participate in, and/or stage an event in view of societal norms and age expectations. For example, having a child or getting married. The timing of one's "social clock" is critical in the occurrence of an event (Merriam, 1984). Researchers have also written about the degree to which adults have the ability and capacity to handle life's transition (Merriam and Cafferalla, 1999 and Reeves, 1999).

B) **Multicultural Approach**

In the United States we are considered a universal country in the sense that a variety of people are represented from all over the world. Given such universality we attempt to reach an ideal state as conveyed in *e pluribus unum*-"out of many comes one." This idealized state emphasizes the dominant culture and attempts to assess all individuals based upon the contents of a eurocentric "box." In an effort to achieve the state of *e pluribus unum* we must recognize the varied contributions of many cultural groups and place emphasis on the *pluribus*. Promoting multicultural education means we must work to negotiate, seek understanding, share power, and integrate accomplishments and contributions of other cultures. (Banks, 1995 and Johnson-Bailey and Cervero, 2000).

Talmadge C. Guy (1999) notes that adult educator, Horace Kallen (in 1915), originally conceptualized multiculturalism and Alain Locke advanced and expanded on Kallen's ideas. Guy also points out that for Kallen and Locke multicultural education meant acquiring an education for and about unique groups of people. Various types of multicultural education have influenced and shaped the adult education literature (Johnson-Bailey and Cervero, 2000). Carol Gilligan (1982) and Belenky and et al. (1986) presented unique multicultural contributions. Gilligan's work is significant because she "emphasized the need for a new approach to the study of adulthood that is sensitive to, and reflects, the realities of woman's experience. She presents a clear description of ways in which traditional concepts of adult development fail to reflect the daily circumstance women face (Peck, 1986, P.276)." Belenky and et al. (1986) demonstrated that collaboration, intimacy, and an egalitarian spirit constitute women's ways of knowing and that such ways of knowing may be "more effective and appropriate ways of learning in the workplace and in formal education than the competitive, individualistic modes of knowing traditionally associated with men (Hayes, 2001)." Jovita Ross Gordon (1999) notes that to develop as a man or a woman in a specific culture means paying attention to "cultural cues" about what constitutes "gendered appropriate based" behaviors for men and women. Goodman (1990, P. 4) asserts that human development "theories has largely been based on the study of white, middle-class; women there has been little inclusion of or attention paid to other cultural differences." Daniele Flannery (1994) notes that the traditional/classical approach in adult education supported racism and sexism because models/theories of adult learning and development emphasized individualism, linearity, and eurocentric values. She also states that an inherent danger of universality is the attempt to utilize a "one shoe- fits all" approach in imposing theory on diverse adults. Scipio Colin III and Elisabeth Hayes (1994) acknowledged racism and sexism in adult education. These researchers specifically called for inclusion and noted the racism and sexism found in adult learning and development models/theories. Merriam and Caffarella (1999, P. 404) noted the inclusive call and stated that they were "considering the sociocultural context in which learning takes place, how race, class, gender, able-bodiedness, sexual orientation and so forth affect learning, thus shifting from a primarily psychological orientation to a broader contextual view."

Other researchers have recognized the call for inclusion that considers race, class, gender and/or forms of human diversity. Alicia Fedelina Chavez and Florence-Guido-DiBrito (1999) found that models of racial and ethnic identity served to foster enhanced understanding of one's ability to negotiate the "culture of self" as well as "culture of the other." Kathleen Edwards and Ann

Brooks (1999) address theories of sexual orientation and say that sexual identity can create new knowledge critical to adult learning and development. Given the limited scope of this paper, I have cited those works consistent with the Multicultural Approach. My goal in discussing this approach is to familiarize the reader with some of the efforts made in the field. "The field of adult education has moved slowly toward theorizing within the particular social and cultural contexts as opposed to viewing adult education knowledge as applicable to all learners, despite the context (Guy, 1999, P. 1)."

Johnson-Bailey and Tisdell (1998, P. 87) describe the impact that class had on their adult development as women with career aspirations. Their stories provide a snapshot of the complex nature of race, class, and gender in adult development:
Libby's obstacles to success were few, attributable to being from a white, middle-class, college-educated family; she knew how to negotiate educational systems. But as a woman she did not know how to translate educational professional work. This know-how had been imparted to her by her brothers, and they were actively and directly mentored into professional careers. Although Juanita's family placed importance on education, by virtue of race and class, they did not have easy access to formal education, and thus to knowlege of how the systems of "culture of power" in education worked. Juanita had to learn some of these rules outside of her own family of origin "(p. 87)."

III. **Summary and Implications for Adult Education**

This discussion began with the student stories of Don, Sharan, Michael, and Theresa. The stories shared raised critical questions for me as an adult educator: 1)How could I meet these adults where they were? and)How could I stimulate dialogue about ways within which to encourage and promote the development of learning communities with the specific needs of Dan, Sharan, Michael, and Theresa in mind? I turned to the literature for answers, approaches, and insights. Upon reviewing the adult education literature I found the traditional/classical and multicultural approaches useful in attempting to explain and understand changes that adults experience in the course of their lifespan. Perhaps the traditional/classical approach may work to explain why Don finds himself in a very uncomfortable "station" in life. Research in the area of life events/transitions may provide much insight into Don's situation. It could be that Don may reinvent himself in order to cope with the changes and to find a way to jump-start new beginnings in all areas of his life (Merriam and Cafferalla, 1999, P. 106). Not only is Don dealing with historical, biological, and technological changes, but one wonders how he is adjusting to the personal changes in his life-as, he finds himself living the life of a bachelor at age sixty-six and engaging in work that he lacks passion for.

In the previous section we found that the traditional/classical and multicultural approaches offer much in attempting to understand the life experiences, events, and, circumstances of Sharan, Michael, and Theresa. We note with Sharan and Theresa that each woman faces a unique set of challenges due to race, class, and gender. I think the critical question lies in, how each adult handles the dimensions of the "box" as presented to them. For example, will Theresa pursue doctoral study? Will Sharan begin to address why employers do not offer a complete benefits package for her, as head of family? How will Michael deal with privilege and heterosexism as a young, white, gay male? The literature relating to race, class, and gender operates and serves as a guide in helping us to understand the diversity we work with on a daily basis in adult, continuing and community education. The stories of Don, Sharan, Michael, and Theresa attest to the diverse tapestry of change found in the vast dimensions of human experience. The traditional/classical and multicultural approaches are not all encompassing. These approaches serve as a formula or a roadmap to assist us in our work as adult educators in understanding where adults are, where they have been, and where they plan to go in their life's journey. Ways within which to stimulate dialogue in an effort to promote the development of learning communities is rooted in *plures*. I realize that difference is here and it has taken a seat "front-row" in the classroom. Thus, I invite all students to the "table of difference" to discuss how what may appear quite extraordinary for one, may be altogether ordinary for another. I am also aware that it is only through dialogue, on the "ground-floor" with students, can we begin to address new approaches, new possibilities, and enter into new ways of knowing and being.

In promoting an inclusive learning environment, I understand that each of us have a biographical narrative of human experience that has shaped how we have come to view the world. (Rogers, 1995). I am aware then, that just because Don and Michael have an educational contract with me does not mean that Michael and Don's biographies remained at home. In other words, we must acknowledge that student's bring who they are and where they have been into the classroom. Further, in the construction of learning communities I realize that I have a biographical narrative and that my narrative shapes and informs my philosophy of teaching and working with adults. Moreover, I must consider as well what role (s) my gender, my race, my class, and/or how my age plays in movement and development of learning communities. I'd really like to say that I am an adult educator who is passionately involved in the teaching of adults and that's it, however I must acknowledge my multiple lens, my multiple realities, my diverse lived-experiences, my afritics, which is using politics to promote the potential of the powerless (Rogers, 2000, p. 23), and my feminist perspectives for all of these shape who I am in my work inside the classroom. I understand that my positionality has its negative and positive affects and "that African American women can never enter the adult education classroom unmarked by their social positions in society (Brown, Cervero, and Johnson-Bailey, 2000)."

The traditional/classical and multicultural approaches serve to help us to assess changes that adults experience in the course of their life's journey. In adult education literature we find clues that help to explain the great diversity found in adulthood as evidenced by Don, Sharan, Theresa, and Michael. Adult education literature also serves to inform adult educators working with adults in adult, continuing, and, community education that there are an array of problems, issues, and challenges regarding difference (s) that adult students bring with them in the classroom. As adult educators in adult, continuing, and community education it is our responsibility to acknowledge that difference is here and in the classroom.

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A Comprehensive Reference List Is Available At This Session*

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IMAGE-MAKING AND THE EXPLORATION TEACHING BELIEFS OF ADULT EDUCATORS

Edward W. Taylor

Abstract

This study explores teaching beliefs of practicing adult educators through image-making, that of using auto-photography and photo-interviewing as research tools. The findings reveal that most adult educators hold classical images of teaching. In addition, photography as a research tool offers a powerful addition to interviewing when investigating teaching beliefs.

Introduction

Research in adult education has shown that teaching beliefs play a significant role in determining how teachers make meaning of their practice. (Pratt, 1998). Historically, beliefs have been researched through positivistic means with the use of attitudinal and behavioral inventories. However, contemporary thinking has found these methods limiting, whereby recently the emphasis has been on qualitative approaches, examining beliefs inductively through interviewing (Richardson, 1996). In addition, there have been efforts to explore beliefs through images held by teachers about their practice (Clandinin, 1985; Johnston, 1990).

An image is an "organizing concept in personal practical knowledge in that it embodies a person's experience; finds expression in practice; and is the perspective from which new experience is taken (Clandinin, 1986, p. 166)." They are mental representations that have visual and/or physical meaning (Weber & Mitchell, 1995). Bullough, Knowles, and Crow (1991) believe that images through their metaphorical power, act both as a framework for organizing our thinking as well as filters through which we make meaning of our pedagogical knowledge. Images can "capture what a teacher believes about 'the right way to teach'" (Johnston, 1990, p. 133).

Exploring teaching beliefs through images has potential; however, relying on the spoken word cannot always thoroughly capture an image and at times individuals lack the necessary verbal skills to adequately describe their images (Walker, 1993). Also, beliefs often operate on an unconscious level, making it difficult to express them through images. In response to these concerns there have been efforts to explore teachers' images through drawings and other artistic mediums (Weber & Mitchell, 1998). Drawings "offer a different kind of glimpse into human sense making than written or spoken texts do, because they can express that which is not easily put into words: the ineffable, the elusive, the not-yet thought-through, the subconscious" (Weber & Mitchell, 1996, p. 304). Visual renderings of images have also been captured through the use of photographs of teachers, students, and classroom experiences (Calderhead & Robson, 1991).

Photographs offer rich descriptive images that can be used to make sense of the subjective experience (Bogdan & Bilken, 1998). Photography is used in research to understand how people define their world, often shedding light on what is taken for granted or is unquestioned. Even though photography has been applied systematically and frequently as a research tool in other disciplines, such as sociology and anthropology, it has been sporadically used in educational research (Dempsey & Tucker, 1994). Using photography to explore teaching beliefs through image making, involves asking questions, such as "When you think of a teacher what visually comes to mind?" or "When you think of a student what visually comes to mind?" In addition, questions need to be explored about how photographs assist in the inquiry of beliefs. Therefore, the purpose of this study is twofold: a) to explore teaching beliefs of adult educators through image-making (photography), and b) to explore the use of photography as a research tool in the study of teaching beliefs.

Methodology

This study employs a qualitative design involving 16 practicing adult educators who had recently entered a M.A. program in adult education (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). In addition, two specialized practices of photographic research were implemented. First, is auto-photography where the participants are given the charge to take the photographs, not the researcher. This approach "permits others to view the world from the view of the observed persons" (Ziller, 1990, p. 124). Second, is photo interviewing which uses photographs and or videos as a method of inquiry to stimulate the interview process (Harper, 1994). Following the practices of auto-photography each graduate student was given a disposable camera with an assignment to photograph what visual images came to mind when they thought of a teacher, a student, and learning. Once the photographs were developed a semi-structured interview (45-60 minutes) was conducted with each student about his/her teaching beliefs using a 'photo-elicitation' technique. The photographs were used to explore the "participants values, beliefs, attitudes, and meanings in order to trigger memories..." about their teaching experience (Prosser, 1998, p. 124). The researcher did not interpret the photographs, they were used only as interviewing devices. (e.g., Perka, Matherly, Fishman, and Ridge 1992). Transcriptions were analyzed using a constant comparative method (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). To enhance the trustworthiness of the findings member checks were conducted as apart of the data analysis.

Findings

The findings include a general description of the pictures with several examples and the analysis of the interviews is illustrated through a case study of one participant. Also, is a discussion about the use of photography in the study of teaching beliefs.

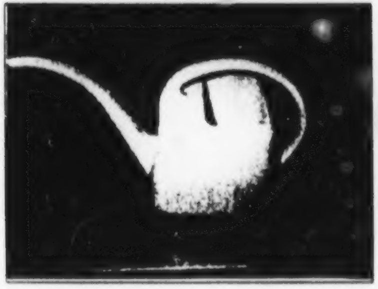
A Description of the Photographs

In general, most of the participants used similar images of a teacher, student, and learning to portray their beliefs about teaching. These images reflected classical representations of teaching adults, often found in a formal adult classroom, such as a single teacher in front, pointing (see 1A), standing by a lectern, or holding a text. Images of students were mostly adults, generally dressed professionally, sitting at tables or at a computer terminal (see 1B). Learning was portrayed with students working alone, with others, or with the teacher (see 1C). Even when these typical images were not adopted, traditional props, such as books, training manuals, or computers were used as signifiers of teaching. Despite this preference for traditional images, there were some photographs that did not fit this pattern. They included parents or grandparents as images of teachers and offspring as students. Other photographs were even more abstract, as shown in pictures 2A-2C. However, as discussed in the next section the images were found to be much more complex than they appear, particularly when used in a photo-elicitation interview.

1A-Teacher

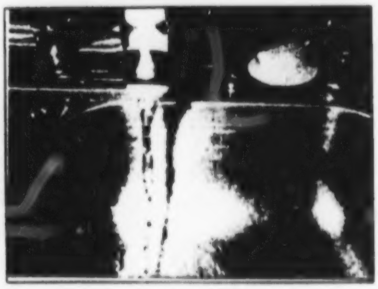
1B Student

1C Learning



2A-Teacher

2B Student



2C Learning

Teaching Beliefs of Entering Graduate Students in Adult Education

This second section of the findings offers a beginning understanding into one adult educator's beliefs about teaching. This student to a great extent represents the beliefs of many of the students in the study, even though her photographs do not fit the classical image of teaching. The student, Sarah, is a literacy educator in rural Northeastern United States. She also has prior experience as an elementary education teacher and an instructor of first-aid courses for the American Red Cross. When Sarah was asked to describe her first picture, that of her visual image of a teacher (A2), she stated:

> I pictured this teacher as the watering can, the collector of the knowledge . . . that's necessary for the student and then being prepared to give it off as necessary. . . . I like to download the information that's necessary for the student, not just any old information, general information, but specifically what they need, what they want, particularly in a literacy context, which is where most of my teaching is done. And then I prepare to give it to them by customizing lesson plans and making customized educational plans for them based on, you know, their needs, and then I give it to them, pour it out.

Sarah, like most of the other participants, described teaching as imparting knowledge to the students but they felt that the process had to be engaging and interesting for their students. This meant that a variety of approaches and methods should be employed that best meet the needs of the students. In Sarah's second photograph (2B), is her visual image of a student, that of a tree. She stated "this tree represents a student because it grows [from] a very small tree to an adult tree. It matures and it goes through its seasons and it has the capability of drinking in the learning that is available to it from the teacher." This photograph of a student and the accompanied comments by Sarah were different from most of the other participants in the study. Most participants took pictures of students sitting a desk or at a computer emphasizing the student in the act of learning and the teacher's role in relationship to the students. Many spoke of the importance of making the students feel comfortable and providing an engaging classroom experience.

The last photograph, that of an image of learning, was the most challenging for the students to visualize and photograph. Very often they made an effort at capturing students in action, doing something, such as reading, writing, or working at the computer. Learning was something that involved "doing" and experiencing first-hand what was being taught in class. Sarah, on the other hand, offered a picture that was strongly interconnected with the previous two, further clarifying her beliefs about teaching. Sarah describes her picture of learning (3A) below:

> So, the water is the learning. The water is the essential nutrient to life, just as it is -- just as real water is the essential nutrient to life, learning is the essential nutrient for life. It's something that we must have our whole lives to be able to continue to grow as the tree.... I am also a tree, going to other watering cans for watering, and getting the learning all the time, and giving the learning.

To Sarah and many of the other participants, learning is a process of giving or receiving something, without much recognition of the constructivist nature of learning. Overall, this group of adult educators was found to hold fairly traditional perspectives of teaching. The teacher was seen as the holder of knowledge, which was to be passed on to the student with an emphasis on imparting of knowledge in an experiential approach in a safe and comfortable learning environment.

Photography as a Research Tool in the Exploration of Teaching Beliefs

The third area of the findings is a discussion about the application of using photography as a research tool. Both auto-photography and photo-elicitation techniques were useful in helping adult educators articulate their beliefs about teaching. First, the auto-photography created a sense of collaboration between the researcher and the student in the research project. The students were not just being interviewed; they were taking an active role in the study, by both creating photographs and through their interpretation of the photographs. Second, this sense of collaboration vividly brought to light the limitation of having only the researcher's interpretation of a photograph. Many times in this study analysis of the photographs by the researcher, usually made prior to the interview, were off the mark and/or lacked the depth of understanding of what the student had in mind when he or she took the photograph. A third attribute of using photography is that it offered a "mutual visual context" that can be seen by both the researcher and the participant when making meaning of the participant's beliefs about teaching adults. This visual context allowed for a shared reference point that stimulated a deeper dialogue about teaching beliefs held by the participant. In addition, the photographs encouraged the researcher to become more of a listener, thus promoting further discussion by the participant. A fourth attribute is that photography offered multiple sites of investigation in the photo-elicitation process. Questions can be asked about the choice of individuals or objects in the photograph, the arrangement of the objects, and what was and was not included in the photograph. When the photograph is probed for clarification by the researcher it results in a richer understanding about the participants' beliefs about teaching adults.

Finally, it is important to mention some of the limitations of using auto-photography and the photo-elicitation technique. These tools are not a panacea for gathering information. Asking participants to take photographs resulted in some of the same challenges as asking participants to draw pictures. Some participants expressed apprehension about not having the necessary skills to accomplish the task properly and made comments about the poor quality of their photographs.

Also, since photographs have to be developed after the pictures are taken; the results of the photographic experience are not available to the participants right away. This delay along with the inability to change or modify the photographs as they are taken poses additional constraints.

Discussion and Implications

This study brings to light a number of interesting insights about the nature of teaching beliefs of adult educators and use of photography as a research tool. First, it is apparent in this study adult educators enter graduate school with well-developed beliefs about teaching adults. The participants' views of teaching could be predominantly characterized as passing on information, skills, and tools of a concrete nature, subject to little change or refutation, and at the same time there seems to be little awareness of alternative educational perspectives. This description of teaching is similar to the transmission teaching model outlined by Pratt (1998) which is "the most 'traditional' and long-standing perspective on teaching. It is based on the belief that a relatively stable body of knowledge and/or procedure can be efficiently transmitted to learners. The primary focus is on efficient and accurate delivery of that body of knowledge to learners" (pp. 39-40). In addition, even though the findings reveal that the purpose of teaching appears to be more about sharing knowledge and explaining things clearly to their students, their conceptions of learning seem rooted in experiential and interactive forms of learning. In essence, teaching for these participants is about finding ways to make the act of imparting knowledge more active and engaging. This finding should encourage graduate programs in adult education to have students critically reflect on their beliefs about teaching adults and be exposed to alternative educational perspectives about teaching. The second major finding of this study demonstrates that the use of photography, in concert with in-depth interviews, offers a powerful tool both for the researcher in investigating the nature of teaching beliefs of adult educators, and for teachers in the classroom as an instrument to better understand their own practice. As previous studies have shown, photography is underused in educational research and has the potential to offer much to the field's understanding of how adult educators' make meaning of teaching adults.

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WHO IS PARTICIPATING IN FAITH-BASED PROGRAMS? WHY?

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Abstract

An understanding of participation in adult education is essential in planning and developing programs for adult learners. While our knowledge about participation in formal settings is quite broad, there is still much to learn about aspects of participation in non-formal contexts. Faith-based programs are a prime example. We know little of adults' motivations for participating in educational programs sponsored by faith-based organizations. Furthermore, our knowledge of how adults' learning needs are met within that same context have not been fully explored. Examined in this paper are motivations, characteristics, and learning experiences of adult learners in faith-based communities.

Introduction

Existing in the adult education literature is extensive attention in formal institutional settings while faith-based contexts are exiguous. As such, we still have much to learn regarding motivations and needs of adult learners in this institutional, yet informal context. Numerous studies have identified motivations for participation in adult education. However, these too, focused on adults in formal settings. Thus, individuals from lower socioeconomic and educational levels, often the prevalent participants in faith-based contexts, are not considered and learning needs, subsequently, are unmet. What do organizations, such as faith-based, contribute to our knowledge base relative to adult learners? What are learners' motivations for participating in faith-based educational programs? What are their characteristics? What accommodation is made for their needs in faith-based contexts?

Considering the mission of adult education, the essential purpose is extending the benefits of learning for democratic behavior (Dewey, 1971; Lindeman, 1989). The literature on formal adult education relative to needs of adult learners, motivations and barriers for learning, cultural relevancy, and curriculum development is voluminous. To this end, little attention to these same issues in faith-based organizations is available. Although we are beginning to see an increase in the literature regarding community-based education, this field likewise fails to give faith-based organizations due recognition.

Churches, as the most significant of faith-based organizations, are often the most enduring and resilient institutions in neighborhoods that are otherwise vulnerable to negative effects of social, political, and economic winds. It has been said that the last institutions to leave a troubled neighborhood are churches and liquor stores. As faith-based organizations are one of the last strongholds to depart when inner cities decline (McRae, Carey, & Anderson-Scott, 1998), adult educators should examine not only the learning site and access but also the motivation and meaning-making for individuals who do participate within these educational contexts. The importance of alternative sites for learning becomes obvious in light of the low participation rates among minority groups in organized (formal) adult education (Ross-Gordon, 1990). As alternative sites, faith-based organizations offer abundant opportunities for adult education programs and more specifically, research. Characteristics, motivations, and learning experiences of adult learners, and faith-based organizations as contexts for learning are explored in the discussion that follows.

Literature Review

Organized adult education is essentially the domain of white, middle-class men and women who are well educated. This population appears to have several avenues for meeting their educational needs. Not surprising, the typical adult education participant can be described as white, highly educated, and possessing an above average income. However, if adult educators desire to meet the needs of all learners, they must provide alternative avenues of learning. This includes the learning context. Restricting adult learning opportunities to formal, structured institutional walls of education is a proposition too costly to continue. The working class tends to avoid the more formal structures in support of informal patterns of association and the poorest classes have a great disdain for them (Courtney, 1992). Furthermore, there has been an increase in the number of African Americans disengaging from various levels of formal education at a steady pace (Ross-Gordon, 1990). Therefore, if adult educators maintain their focus on formal settings, they will neglect an important group of learners in our society. Many of these learners can be found in our inner city communities.

Adults participate in adult educational activities in many different settings. They are commonly delineated as formal or non-formal. Formal activities and institutions receive the most attention in adult education research (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982) because they are generally more noticeable in industrialized nations (Merriam & Brocket, 1997). Formal settings include colleges and universities, technical schools, adult basic education centers, and the like. Non-formal education is held outside of established formal settings or systems (Merriam & Brockett, 1997) and includes museums, libraries and community-based organizations such as neighborhood centers or churches. Religious or faith-based organizations have received little attention in adult education research and go relatively ignored considering the population numbers represented. By placing disproportionate much attention on formal learning contexts, the valuable educational research opportunities within informal contexts has been neglected.

Regardless of the educational context, adults participate in adult education for a variety of reasons. Some adults are motivated based on transitions that take place in their lives (Aslanian & Brickell, 1980). A change in lifestyle, health, or careers can all serve as the catalyst for change for adult learners. In an examination of adults' orientations toward learning, Houle (1988) found adults were motivated to accomplish a specific goal or objective, participated because they found in the circumstances of the learning a meaning which had no necessary connection and adults who sought knowledge for the sake of it. However, most studies have identified job-related reasons as the main reason for participating in adult education (Boshier, 1991; Fujita-Starck, 1996; Kopka & Peng, 1993).

Dewey's (1971) experiential learning, the process by which behavior changes as a result of experiences, is represented as a cycle of "trying" and "undergoing." The creation of new knowledge and the transformation of oneself through learning, to function with changed behavior and perform new roles, is considered to be more essential than simply learning how to do something. Also experiential in nature, social learning combines elements from both behaviorist and cognitivist learning orientations, hypothesizing that learning results from observing others. Of particular importance to adult education are contributions to social learning theory by Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory emphasizing reciprocal determinism. Illustrated as a triangular model of interaction, the perspective embraces the notion of causation, in which environmental events, personal factors and behavior all function as interacting determinants of each other. Reciprocal causation offers learners opportunities to exercise some control over their destinies in addition to setting limits of self-direction. A dimension of the self-influence is the capability for self-refection concerning one's own thinking and personal efficacy (Bandura, 1986).

While information from formal settings is useful, it does little to expand our knowledge regarding faith-based organizations, typically a stronghold of community life, regardless of location. Urban sites, one of many contexts acutely in need of adult learning programs, represent potential adult education sites for making available critical assistance to prevent the downward spiral emanating from a lack of education and other resources. Adult educators, considering alternative strategies for providing adult education to marginalized constituencies, specifically urban, but rural as well, might consider faith-based organizations.

Faith is the unique characteristic of faith-based contexts. To have faith means to operate with the conviction of believing and trusting in something as being ultimately true and ultimately valuable. In religious organizations, it means the followers have faith---they trust---in God, in God's love and power and in the ability of God's love and power to transform people's lives for the better. Most would continue by saying that individuals who believe in God and are willing to be directed by Divine guidance and teachings can be the instruments of that love and power in doing the work of service and transformation (Jeavons 2001). Faith-based organizations are communities of believers, possessing distinct webs of social relationships, centered on a common set of strong moral beliefs / truths / values in which members have trust and confidence, to which members remain loyal and consistent.

Recent national attention focused on faith-based communities as service delivery sites for federally funded programs of assistance. Marginalized, multicultural citizenry of America's inner cities are a population for whom learning opportunities could be transformational. Comprehending idiosyncrasies that become barriers or facilitators to learning is essential. Appreciating the challenges to participation and learning as well as the perceptions that promote learning is crucial to adult education program implementation.

Findings

In an examination of motivations for participation in church-based adult education among African American adult learners Isaac (1999), among other things, identified motivations for learning. Motivations for learning identified in the study relevant to this discussion included familiar cultural setting, spiritual and religious development, and service to others. Participants were motivated because they preferred the church as opposed to other educational contexts and felt more comfortable asking questions at the church. Also participating in the church enabled them to learn more about God, and helped them to live better, and not surprisingly, to be a better Christian. Finally, adults participated in the church because they wanted to learn in order to enlighten and help other people and to improve their community. Thus, based on the context, these motivations are somewhat different from those found in formal settings. Surprisingly, however, many of the characteristics of the learners in Isaac's study were similar to those reported in previous findings. This, however, could be explained by the range of educational and income levels of the participants in her study.

In another study within a faith-based context, Tempesta (2001) explored the learning experiences that contribute to the development of leaders in social movements organized in faith-based communities. Findings revealed the phenomenon of the learners' experiences in an urban context. Among the findings of the study was the importance of the faith value that contributed to the meaning making of the participants (Mezirow, 1991; White, 1997). Learners voluntarily and openly engaged in the learning processes with other congregation members. The interactive relationships among the participants and with the environment characterized the learning paradigm (Bandura, 1986; Cunningham & Curry, 1997; Galbraith & Cohen, 1995). The men and women leaders represented the range of membership of a social justice collaboration of faith-based communities. They ranged in age from the mid-twenties to sixty-five years and older. In the coalition of faith-based communities, representing Christian and non-Christian, the ethnic composition included African American, Latino, and white. Formal educational achievement of the leaders ranged from high school to ministerial doctorates. Similar to the benefits of the historical one room school, the diversity of cultural and educational backgrounds of the learning constituency facilitated the exchange among the co-learners. The expression of beliefs in authentic experiences of community action typically distinguished the effective leaders. Results from the aforementioned studies provide insights about motivations and learning experiences that can prove to be useful, particularly for program development in the urban community.

Findings from the previous discussion suggest different characteristics exist among learners based on traditional (formal) and nontraditional (informal) institutional settings in which they engage in learning. Also, motivations and experiences can vary. Thus, there are striking contrasts between the motivations and learning experiences of adult learners in different learning contexts.

Conclusion and Implications

Characteristics, motivations, and learning experiences can vary among adult learners based on the learning context. This is important for adult educators with program development responsibilities. Planning includes understanding the motivations of learners as well assessing and prioritizing their needs. If adult educators seek to provide quality programming that is responsive to the needs of all learners, they cannot rely solely on educational concepts grounded in studies within formal contexts. Among the implications regarding learners' motivations and learning needs discerned from the research and practice discussed are the importance of participation in the faith-based context where the culture is known, more trusted, and social patterns of relationship are predictable to the constituency. The shared faith value of participants in faith-based contexts offers a common foundation for program design, experiences, and outcomes. Interaction across the range of diversity of education, culture and experience creates unintentional learning opportunities in addition to the intentional ones. The authenticity of the environment facilitates the participants' exploration and development that promotes personal transformation. Accommodating the vast faith-based constituency with adult learning opportunities holds the potential for individual and community transformation with the power for social change.

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GOING DEEPER: THE ROLE OF SPIRITUALITY, CULTURAL IDENTITY, AND SOCIOPOLITICAL DEVELOPMENT IN TEACHING FOR TRANSFORMATION

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Abstract: After outlining our definition and assumptions about spirituality, in this paper we examine the connection between spirituality and cultural identity, sociopolitical development, and what it offers to teaching for transformation. We also discuss how adult educators might deal with dilemmas they might face in dealing with spirituality and cultural identity in the higher education classroom.

Many adults identify spirituality as a major organizing principle that gives their lives meaning and informs their life choices and activities. Their spirituality cannot by entirely separated from their sense of cultural identity. Yet, there has been limited discussion about the importance of spirituality and culture to adult learning and emancipatory adult education (Tisdell, 2000). The three major approaches to teaching for transformation in the adult education literature address important aspects of emancipatory education efforts. For example, Mezirow's work on transformational theory, authors in Hayes and Colin (1994) who examine structural perspective of challenging power relations, and Guy's (1999) discussion of cultural relevance all represent work that has forwarded this body of knowledge. However, spirituality and the cultural dimension of spirituality have rarely been explored by this literature.

As educators who have worked separately for over a decade in higher education environments, and more recently together over the last year, we have come to believe that it is important to consider how the spiritual dimension intersects with the complexities of culture and the cultural identities of the adult learners with whom we work. Whether a person becomes committed to and involved in social justice activities is dependent upon who and where they are culturally, spiritually, affectively, politically, historically, and physically. Our own experiences with teaching classes, conducting workshops, and doing research, as well as insights from within and outside the field of adult education, have convinced us that the consideration of these various aspects of the learner is critical to effective, relevant practice and useful research of transformative teaching and learning. This can be exciting, but it also can present challenges.

The purpose of this paper on is to look more closely at the connections between culture and spirituality and to examine how they can more fully inform emancipatory adult education efforts. We will begin by first providing some discussion of our working definition of spirituality, and then examine: (1) the connection between cultural identity and spirituality; (2)the role of spirituality in sociopolitical development; and (3) dilemmas of research and practice.

What Is "Spirituality"?

Spirituality is an elusive topic; different people define it in different ways, and all definitions somehow seem to be incomplete. In defining it, we make several assumptions about the nature of spirituality, based on reading the literature on it, and our own experience of it. First, in the words of Lisa Riddle, a participant in the Tisdell (2000) study on the spirituality of women activists, "spirituality is an aware honoring of the Lifeforce that's happening through everything." Second, given that this Lifeforce is everywhere, then people's spirituality is always present (though usually unacknowledged) in the learning environment. Third, spirituality is about how people make meaning, and about experiences that get at the wholeness and interconnectedness of all of Life. Fourth, spirituality is about how people construct knowledge through largely unconscious and symbolic processes manifested in image, symbol, music. These manifestations of spirituality are often cultural. Fifth, spirituality invites people into their own authenticty. Sixth, spirituality and religion are NOT the same, though for many people they are inter-related. And finally, **spiritual** experiences generally happen by surprise. It is the connection of spirituality to symbolic processes that connects it most specifically to culture. Further, given that people's spirituality is always present on some level in the learning environment, it is incumbent upon educators to consider how it might inform emancipatory education efforts.

Spirituality and Cultural Identity

Although often discussed separately, cultural identity and spirituality have many connections that influence and can be the catalyst for transformational activities. Cultural identity has been defined as an awareness of self as a member of a particular cultural group. As one reclaims one's cultural identity, through what Abalos (1998) discusses as the reclaiming of the four faces of one's being (the personal, political, historical, and sacred faces), and as one remembers (and re-membesrs) who one is (Tolliver, 2001), there is often a recognition of the positive and the collective power of one's cultural group. This is especially the case for members of marginalized groups. For members of privileged groups, cultural identity development is characterized by the movement from denial of cultural differences to an acknowledgement of privilege and its benefits (Helms, 1984). Identity development theorists describe these processes as fundamental shifts in worldview, philosophy, beliefs, and attitudes. These shifts, in and of themselves, are transformative. Major implications of these shifts often include a growing recognition of the injustices, inequities and oppression against marginalized groups, and the responsibility of the privileged in the perpetration of these wrongs. Thus cultural identification and recognition of the wrongs may lead not only to the desire to alleviate these social ills, but also to the commitment to engage in anti-oppression behaviors that make a difference both for the individual, and for others (Lawrence & Tatum, 1997).

How is spirituality connected to this process? Myers et. al. (1991) conceptualize optimal identity development as a process of coming to know oneself as Spirit. For many, then, spirituality is central to self-discovery and liberation. It informs and supports identity. Helminiak (2001) characterizes spirituality as a core that runs through cultures. Understandably, then, spirituality may be seen as representing important parts of self-identity, regardless of whether there is formal affiliation with a specific religious denomination. Nobles (1980) notes, for example, that the identity of people of African descent is grounded in their Spiritness and their interconnectedness, as expressed by the statement, "I am because we are, we are therefore I am." Self can be seen as "historical consciousness, a collective spirituality." And the collective spirituality of many groups defines a "mission of reform" (Norris & Robinson, 1996) in the face of actions that threaten the survival of the group. Spiritual notions of right, justice and making things better for all in the community provide the impetus for involvement in transformative activities, and thus must be attended to in teaching for transformation.

Spirituality and Sociopolitical Development

As Freire (in Horton & Freire, 1990) notes no education is politically neutral. Educators always make a choice of what to include in their curriculum. It is every bit as political to choose curricular materials that only represent the dominant culture, thus supporting the status quo, as it is to choose curricular materials that deal with people of color and those who are marginalized, thus challenging the status quo. Freire, Horton, and other emancipatory educators, have used education to help people understand social systems of oppression, and to explore ways that education can challenge such systems. In essence, they were trying to facilitate a way for people to advocate for oppressed parts of themselves and to be allies for others, in educating for social transformation. It is political, but for many, it is also deeply spiritual. Freire and Horton both discuss their understanding of liberation theology and the Christian social gospel in their own development as activist educators. This understanding was formative and partly what motivated them to take action. Similarly, Abalos (1998) notes that "to cast out demons in our personal lives and in society means that we have freed our sacred face" (p. 35). To understand who we are culturally, and to stand up in the face of adversity on behalf of our ourselves and society is to "cast out demons." It is to free our sacred face, because the courage to do that often is grounded in our spiritual commitment. But it is also political, because rarely do such actions happen in isolation devoid of context. We need only think of Rosa Parks whose individual action of refusing to sit at the back of the bus at the dawn of the civil rights movement, was also a deeply political action. It was the bonding together of her personal action with the collective action of the African American community and their allies, and their embracing their personal, historical, and political faces, grounded in their own sacred stories that resulted in social transformation.

It is clear, that for many, spirituality is a grounding place from which to take action on behalf of those who have been marginalized. Liberation theologians, such as Cone, Gutierrez, and Ruether have discussed the integration between spirituality and dealing with issues related to culture, race, gender, ecology (Ecumenical News International, 1997; House, 1992). But the process of learning to take action for social change on behalf of oneself develops over time. Watts et. al. (1999) have theorized a model of sociopolitical development which acknowledges the central role of spirituality to many social change movements as well as to personal transformation. Within a higher education setting, we can never require that our students get involved in political action. However, we can encourage activities that help the to reclaim their personal, political, sacred, and historical faces around systems of privilege and oppression that inform their lives, and ask them to consider how they might deal with these issues. This may help facilitate their sociopolitical development, and assist in the freeing of their sacred face.

Dealing with Dilemmas in Practice

Because of the often evocative nature of spirituality and culture, integration of these concepts in practice is a challenge. As cautioned by Fenwick (2001), we must be critically reflective of our efforts in this arena, to insure that our use of spiritual and cultural pedagogies enhance and support the personhood and growth of learners. At the same time, we concur with hooks (2001), who encourages our willingness to "transgress" against the mainstream cultural taboos that silence the passion for spiritual practices.

Educational practice informed by spirituality does not mean proselytizing lectures or the imposition of a dogmatic agenda. We are talking about authenticity, openness, acceptance, honoring of the various dimensions of how people learn and construct knowledge, by facilitating activities that include attention to the affective, the somatic, the spiritual or symbolic, as well as the cognitive. No educational approach is value free, nor is this one. Yet as suggested by Helminiak (2001), we can incorporate spirituality into our work without being imperialist. A spiritually informed pedagogy, if not grounded in dogmatic religion, can be expansive and welcoming, as it addresses aspects of learners that are often neglected in the heavily cognitive-intellectual academy. Of course as educators, we must always be aware of power differentials between educators and learners in classrooms, and to be careful not to abuse the authority of our positions as teachers. It is always important that learners participate in the learning process at their own level of desire and comfort. But it is also important to celebrate and enhance learning with affective and symbolic modalities, and to acknowledge the spiritual dimension that is there in learners' lives. In short, when we bring our full authentic selves to the classroom, which includes our spirituality, we invite learners into theirs.

Spirituality is a deep level phenomenon; its presence or value is independent of specific course content, and its connection to the development and growth of the learner is present in the learning process itself. Without using the "S" word, we can embrace and embody spirituality in our actions and approach to work. Since it's always present in the learning environment, it's unnecessary to pursue it directly. Manifestations of spirituality usually happen by surprise—in students' spontaneous creation of poetry in response to an exercise, in art, in music, in their dramatic presentations on a theme in the reading, in movement. It is present whenever people's authenticity becomes visible in new ways, and more connected to others. This incorporates a more holistic approach to learning, and also hints at the wholeness and interconnectedness of all of life.

As Abalos (1998) suggests, we have freed our "sacred face" when we "cast out demons" in our personal lives and in society. When we deal directly with structural forms of oppression based on race, culture, sexual orientation, gender, we are trying to cast out societal (and personal) demons, thus freeing our sacred face. But this implies taking risks. So does making our sacred face visible, by finding ways of incorporating attention to the spiritual as it connects to these issues in the rationally-driven academy of higher education. We always take risks when we incorporate critical or feminist pedagogy, or antiracist education. Why does making our sacred face visible, and incorporating spirituality into our work seem more risky? Most obviously, but probably less significantly, in the 20th century higher education has focused almost exclusively on rational knowledge production and dissemination. But the bigger risk might be that attention to the spiritual requires our authenicity as *people*, not only as instructors. Further, spirit is powerful. The most powerful moments we have had in classes dealing with cultural issues are when participants take risks and share their authentic selves (including their cultural selves) and their connection to others through their own honesty and creativity as they relate the course content to their lives. Perhaps it feels risky, because it feels that we also can't control what feels so powerful.

To take risks and to acknowledge and attend to the spiritual in the classroom is to be political. But each of us must ask, what is our vocation? We find that at this point in our lives, we cannot not do this work, and to be true to our authentic vocations. While the risks are somewhat different for each of us, because of our different cultural backgrounds and life experiences, we each take risks in our own way, somewhat aware of our nontenured status, as well as the racism and sexism that is still present in higher education.

Conclusion

One must always be aware, to notice—even though the cost of noticing is to be responsible.
Thylias Moss, artist

When one is more one's authentic spiritual self and takes action by bringing it to the learning environment, it is a form of political action. Connecting with others concerned about the place of spirituality and culture in higher education begins to form a movement, which furthers this political action. Indeed, it is a form of teaching for social transformation.

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THE AMBUSHED SPIRIT: THEMES OF VIOLENCE AND DOWNSIZING

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Throughout the 80s and 90s, much has been written about aspects of downsizing. Except for a philosophical essay that mentions job loss resulting from technological "progress" (Stanage, 1981), I have found no work that situates violence within the context of downsizing. My study breaks that silence by increasing the volume of the voices of persons who were separated from their jobs. Specifically, I explore two questions: What is the relationship between violence and the experience of downsizing from the perspective of persons who were separated from their jobs; and What are their thoughts concerning the acceptability of corporate decisions to downsize. This study situates downsizing within the context of violence and peace research through the stories of 28 white-collar workers separated from their jobs in August 2000. Preliminary analysis of 14 of these interviews reveals important themes that are consistent with some of the literature on violence. This topic is particularly relevant as announcements of downsizing punctuate the daily business and financial reports. Implications from the findings apply to adult educators and professionals engaged in management education, organizational behavior and development, human resource management and development, as well as policy studies.

This study began with my experience with job loss. I was one of 1,100 white-collar employees separated from our jobs in August 2000. From my perspective, this assault of and by the organization's own people was workplace violence. The "organization" had turned against us, standing apart as a separate entity, while somehow we became the Other. Those responsible for our downsizing, having delegated oversight for the transition process to an outside consulting firm, never again looked at our faces to see the pain, concerns, and our fears. In conducting this research, I attempted to capture our experiences and particularly our feelings at this stage of our sense making, healing, and rebuilding process, in order to give voice and face to what seemed to be a cold and calculated act based on numerical facts alone.

Method

I began this study by consulting the literatures on downsizing, violence, phenomenology of **person** (Stanage, 1987), institutional theory, and peace research. Of these, the works of Stanage (1969, 1974, 1981, 1987) and Galtung (1969, 1990) were most influential in providing a lens through which I would view the data.

Data for this study drew from multiple sources, including a demographic profile form I had created, in-depth interviews, my own journaling and field notes, a segment of one participant's journal, and electronic communication between the colleagues in transition and myself. The only criteria for participation were that we be among those 1,100 white-collar employees, downsized in the August 2000 timeframe, from company locations in this midwestern metropolitan area. In all, 27 people (plus myself), diverse in many ways, volunteered to share our experiences of the downsizing. I assured everyone that I would not use real names, not even the company's name, in any final write-ups resulting from this research.

Interviews began with a broad opening question, "tell me the story of your downsizing", and proceeded in conversational manner between two people with a common bond. They flowed from one topic to the next at the participant's discretion, and I brought broad prompts, i.e. "v" for violence, "p" for person, "sc" for social construction, and "l" for language to remind myself to explore each of the areas of my research questions should they not emerge on their own. The interviews took place between February and March 2001 at the participant's location of choice and lasted from 1 hour 15 minutes to approximately three hours each. All were audio taped and transcribed verbatim, in the order in which they occurred, resulting in over 3,000 pages of double-spaced, typed text. As each was transcribed, it was submitted to the participant for editing and review.

As of this writing, I have coded and analyzed 14 of the 28 transcripts. Within the next few months, the complete analysis will be drafted. I struggled with the method of coding and categorizing because I was overwhelmed with the amount of data and information I had collected. After four false starts through 14 interviews, I returned to the methodology texts. I had begun to see themes emerging from the texts, but I needed to manage the data for ready retrieval. I was attempting to follow in the Glaser and Strauss (1967) tradition of grounded theory when I came across an article citing idiographic summaries (Cotte & Ratneshwar, 1999) as a methodological tool used in the hermeneutic tradition. Idiographic summaries are created after multiple readings of a phenomenological or long text, such as my interview transcripts. Applied to this research, they seem to capture a contextualized and holistic image of the research participant's interaction with the downsizing. Themes emerging from these texts are iteratively compared with the whole text and other participants' summaries and texts. Adjustments and refinements are made throughout the process of analysis and interpretation. A rich interpretation, informed by relevant literature and the researcher's experiences and insights results (Thompson, 1997; Thompson & Haytko, 1997; Thompson, Locander, & Pollio, 1990).

As I read the texts, I noted the use of figurative linguistic expressions, transitive sentence constructions, and verb forms that were suggestive of violence. I listed those words and expressions per participant, turning them into violative (verb + -ive) forms to extend Stanage's theory of violatives (1974), within the context of this corporate downsizing. Through a heightened awareness of language, I was able to extract the participants' perceptions of "modes and themes of violence" (Stanage, 1969, 1974, 1981).

Emergent Findings and Implications

The themes that are emerging are varied and rich. Salient at this time are: the downsizing's temporal horizon, downsizing as a welcome event, inadequate communication of the selection criteria, the use of symbolic communication during the separation meeting, and supremacy of the stockholders.

It quickly became apparent that peoples' experiences of the downsizing spanned a temporal horizon rather than a discrete moment in time. Stanage defines violence as "the dis-order of order" based on persons' unique relevancy systems (Stanage, 1974). In order to understand what the elements of the relevancy systems were, what constituted order, dis-order, and re-order, it was necessary to locate the downsizing event within a wider temporal context. The periods within this horizon were four: before, during, possible interim, and after. The beginning and duration of the interim period, when applicable, fluctuated according to individual experience. This widened lens on the downsizing experience led to an unanticipated finding.

Several of the participants reported that the downsizing was a welcome event. Dale grinned as he declared "the layoff was a godsend for me". He explained that his stay with the company had been so difficult, in itself a contested terrain of dis-order, that by the time the downsizing came, it marked the beginning of the re-order of order in his life. Other individuals whose jobs did not turn out as expected (Peter), or were not sufficiently challenging (Cara), or unreasonably demanding on personal time and other life interests (Alexandria), or perceived to be disrespectful (Rich) reported the theme that I've tentatively named downsizing as deliverance. The importance of this finding points to the violative aspect of the workplace that people sometimes encounter, so that the downsizing event, which is experienced as violence by some is the harbinger of peace and opportunity for others.

One participant who had been a director (an organizational level not far beneath the executive team) was also delighted with the downsizing. Had the organization not decided to downsize, he had planned to stay until age 62, at which time he would retire. At 57, with nearly 34 years of service and generous severance benefits awarded by the company, he decided that he would begin retirement earlier than expected, with bonus time to pursue things he'd always wanted to do, including spending time with the family, which was important to him. Perhaps because of his organizational level, unlike most at levels below, he was able to offer suggestions for the restructuring and reorganization of his business unit, eliminating his position and consolidating the job, even though he still hoped that he wouldn't be let go. This example of downsizing as a welcome event is important because it highlights the significance of class and privilege within the organization, as well as in the larger society. He did not report the threat of economic struggle as a result of the downsizing.

The separation meeting was filled with symbols of power, finality, authority, and furtive corroboration, which effectively silenced most employees by discouraging further communication and enforcing acquiescence. Examples of such symbols include a script or scripted language, the presence of unusual people in power, the separation packet with the employee's name already typed in, and words like "this decision has been reviewed by upper management and the decision is final". Most participants left without a clear understanding of why they had been selected for downsizing. The scripted language of the meeting tolerated only a reiteration of the organization's decision to downsize, but no explanation of the selection criteria. As a result, there appeared to be ruminative energy expended by some participants, in order to make sense of why they were selected for downsizing versus someone else, and by whom. The explanation that the organization was restructuring and that their position had been eliminated did not seem to be credible or complete to these people. It was as if they were searching for something deeper, a more logical truth that would reveal some of the hidden agenda they sometimes suspected. Their stories evidenced such sense making activity in what seemed to be a struggle for personal resolution.

Participants referred to the grip of the stockholders on companies' decisions to downsize. Few had even thought about possible alternatives for reducing costs while retaining employees. Some mentioned that perhaps the organization had not thought of alternatives, either, because it had downsized before and that was what it already knew how to do, or because reducing headcount wielded a quick and easy impact on the bottom line, or because the organization was simply not smart enough to think of something different. Some even defended the organization's decision to downsize, saying that if they were in the position of the CEO facing pressures to increase profits and meet stockholder expectations, they would do the same thing. Some offered possible explanations for what contributes to society's acceptance of downsizing, including the capitalist system, the "at will law", the breakdown of the implicit employment contract, the way young people are being taught in the business schools that to get ahead one must move from one job to the next, and the media, which, through repetition, renders downsizing increasingly routine. At the same time, most of the participants believed that the organization knew that the decision to downsize would negatively impact many lives, but proceeded with it anyway, because they did not care.

This finding is important because it suggests a sense of powerlessness on the part of the participants, and acceptance of perhaps an unfortunate but necessary quality of the capitalist system. There is reason to believe that since organizations continue to cyclically downsize their staffs by the thousands without resistance or rebuke, this acquiescence is characteristic of the wider society. Peter, for example, commented, "there's nothing you can do", like the popular refrain, there is no alternative (TINA); and as an individual it would be a tough battle indeed, because various institutions within our culture, i.e. the media and government to name just two, make the kind of violence experienced with downsizing "OK" or at least so normal that it just is not so bad (Galtung, 1990).

Implications abound for adult educators engaged in the education or practice of human resource management (HRM), human resource development (HRD), critical management studies (CMS), organizational behavior (OB) and development (OD), as well as policy studies. The stories of some of these participants suggest that they may have been dismissed because their positions were eliminated. It appears that once the decision was made to reduce the number of employees, those holding "luxury" positions were let go, regardless of the talent and potential they had. If a main reason for downsizing is cost reduction, human resource managers may wish to consider the costs of lost opportunities resulting from failure to keep those individuals on staff.

Human resource development professionals are frequently summoned to prepare an organization for downsizing, train managers on how to downsize their staff the legal way, and then assist the survivors within the organization to heal. The stories of these participants suggest a more proactive role for human resource development. For example, practitioners might develop and implement a curriculum for employability, including cross training, so that employees may be poised to assume different roles and positions as needed. Patrick, for example, was permitted to stay with the organization until January 2001, in order to find another job within. While he applied for three or four, he was rejected from each. People who had prior experience in those fields were invited to take the jobs, while he was ultimately let go. HRD professionals need to work alongside the executive staff and stay abreast of market and industry trends, in order to create a curriculum that is relevant before the downturn begins. In addition, they are urged to consider the importance of adequate training and orientation for employees new to the organization or to the position. Organizations fail employees when they neglect to assist them with context-specific skills and political awareness so that they can be successful in their jobs.

Organizational behavior and development professionals diagnose the organization's processes and systems, propose strategies for change, and are often asked to lead the way in implementing executive decisions. This research suggests that decisions to downsize may be violative to different people within the organization as well as to those who are separated. Executive staff, HRD, HRM, and OB/D professionals must ask themselves if that is indeed the kind of culture they wish to develop, where employees are perceived to be instruments for corporate profitability, instead of valuable human beings in their own right, capable of learning new skills when needed rather than being dismissed for having become deficient or obsolete.

Critical management studies seeks to develop skills in problematizing the given, generating possibilities, and articulating thoughts and ideas. Management scholars are found in organizations, consulting firms, and academic environments. As managers and leaders at various organizational levels, it is they who influence or implement important decisions. Except for those at the top, they must look at the faces of employees as they communicate who will stay and who will go. Perhaps in a future executive boardroom, they will muster the courage to suggest alternatives to downsizing when faced with an imminent downturn. Better yet, perhaps they will have learned how to generate options and new directions for the organization so that new jobs are created as jobs that are no longer in demand are left behind.

Finally, adult educators engaged in policy studies, aware of the violative potential of downsizing, must approach legislation from a critical standpoint. Policy, proposed or enacted, that protects the sovereignty of stockholders over other stakeholders and unquestioningly elevates the status of large, powerful corporations, must be monitored and problematized, in order to insure that profit and corporations are at the service of persons, and not the other way around. For example, policy makers might benchmark with some countries abroad where corporations are held legally accountable for finding substitute employment for those for whom they no longer have positions.

This research has demonstrated that downsizing may be violative to persons separated from their jobs, depending on their unique personal contexts. These preliminary findings raise our awareness, and call us to adopt peaceful means of addressing economic demands of the organization.

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